

ELEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

COLUMBIAN INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB,

FOR THE

YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1868,

WITH AN APPENDIX.



WASHINGTON:  
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.  
1868.

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OFFICERS OF THE INSTITUTION.

Patron—ANDREW JOHNSON, *President of the United States.*  
President—EDWARD MINER GALLAUDET, M. A.  
Secretary—WILLIAM STICKNEY, Esq.  
Treasurer—GEORGE W. RIGGS, Jr., Esq.  
Directors—Hon. JAMES W. PATTERSON, Hon. RUFUS P. SPALDING,  
Hon. N. BOYDEN, Hon. AMOS KENDALL, Hon. BENJAMIN B. FRENCH,  
Rev. BYRON SUNDERLAND, D. D., DAVID A. HALL, Esq., JAMES C.  
McGUIRE, Esq., HENRY D. COOKE, Esq.

COLLEGE FACULTY.

EDWARD M. GALLAUDET, M. A., *President, Professor of Moral and  
Political Science.*  
SAMUEL PORTER, M. A., *Professor of Mental Science and English Phi-  
lology.*  
Rev. LEWELLYN PRATT, M. A., *Professor of Natural Science.*  
EDWARD A. FAY, M. A., *Professor of History and Ancient Languages.*  
JAMES M. SPENCER, B. A., *Professor of Mathematics.*  
Rev. WILLIAM W. TURNER, M. A., *Lecturer on Natural History.*  
Hon. JAMES W. PATTERSON, LL. D., *Lecturer on Astronomy.*  
PETER BAUMGRAS, *Instructor in Art.*  
J. B. CUNDIFF, *Instructor of Penmanship.*

FACULTY OF THE PRIMARY DEPARTMENT.

President—EDWARD M. GALLAUDET, M. A.  
Instructors—JAMES DENISON, M. A., MELVILLE BALLARD, B. S.,  
MARY T. G. GORDON.

DOMESTIC DEPARTMENT.

Family Supervisor—WILLIAM L. GALLAUDET.  
Attending Physician—NATHAN S. LINCOLN, M. D.  
Matron—Miss ANNA A. PRATT.  
Assistant Matron—Mrs. ELIZABETH L. DENISON.

COLUMBIA INSTITUTION FOR THE  
INSTRUCTION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB,  
Washington, October 26, 1868.

SIR: In compliance with the acts of Congress making provision for the support of this institution, we have the honor to report its progress during the year ending June 30, 1868.

NUMBER OF PUPILS.

The pupils remaining in the institution on the first day of	
July, 1867, numbered.....	88
Admitted during the year ending June 30, 1868.....	22
Since admitted.....	12
Under instruction since July 1, 1867, males, 93; females, 29; total.....	122

Of these, nine have been dismissed, one has been expelled, and one has died.

The number of United States beneficiaries is 56; paying pupils, 12; supported by the State of Maryland, 35; supported by the city of Baltimore, 19.

THE HEALTH OF THE INSTITUTION.

We have to record, with devout thankfulness to Almighty God, another year of general health throughout the institution. No epidemic disease has prevailed, and the cases of sickness have, with a single exception, been of a mild character and have yielded readily to treatment.

We are, however, called upon to record the death, after a brief illness, of one of our number, Mr. Anthony J. Kull, of Wisconsin, a promising member of our collegiate department.

The high estimation in which Mr. Kull was held by his instructors will appear from the following minute from the records of the faculty.

Mr. Anthony J. Kull entered the preparatory class of the National Deaf-Mute College in the month of September, 1866. He came hither highly recommended by the principal of the Wisconsin institution, where he had finished a course of seven years.

Here he at once enlisted the interest and affection of both teachers and companions, by his simple, genial, and truthful character. Laboring under disadvantages arising from deficient training, especially in the structure and use of the English language, by force of will and sincere love of study he mastered steadily the difficulties of his course, and was developing all the true characteristics of successful scholarship. He was possessed eminently of that spirit essential to the entrance into the kingdom of knowledge, as well as the kingdom of grace—the spirit of “a little child”—and the truth ever found him attentive and receptive.

At the end of a single year in the preparatory department he passed the examination required for admission to the college, and entered the Freshman class. During the two terms he remained in that class his course was marked by the same perseverance and earnestness, and he ranked as second in scholarship. He had a strong and healthy organization, and gave promise of a long, progressive, and useful life. He had had no experience of sickness, and in his muscular form there was no indication that disease could stop him in the midst of his college course and bring him to the grave. On Monday, April 13, he was unwell, but apparently suffering temporarily from some imprudence, and no apprehension was felt that he was dangerously ill. The next day the disturbance continued, and the physician found interception of the bowels of such a character as to render his recovery doubtful. During Wednesday there was some hope that he might recover. He passed a quiet and comfortable night, and on Thursday morning seemed better; but at 10 o'clock his strength yielded to the progress of the disease and death came.

That morning, in conversation with President Gallaudet, he was informed of his condition, and the possibility that he might not recover; but, while he disclaimed all merits of his own and all fitness to meet death, he expressed himself as not afraid to die, and willing to trust himself to the Saviour who had died for him.

During his first year he joined the company of students who met for prayers Sunday evenings, and has borne an efficient part in sustaining those meetings. By this he understood



that he made a public avowal of his love to Christ, and his determination to lead a Christian life, and his whole career was consistent with that avowal. He was an earnest student of the Bible, and a reverential attendant upon all religious services; a truthful and pure companion, an obedient and conscientious student, and apparently a sincere Christian.

As a faculty we record most cheerful testimony to his exemplary character; heartfelt sorrow over his early death; sympathy for his parents and friends in their bereavement; and assurance that for him to die is gain.

The following resolutions were passed by the students:

Whereas, God, in his infinite love and wisdom, has removed by death our beloved friend and companion, Anthony J. Kull; therefore,

*Resolved*, That his integrity of character and nobleness of heart have endeared him to us in all his relations as a class-mate and friend, and that our grief at the loss of one so universally respected and loved will prompt us to cherish his memory with great affection.

*Resolved*, That we extend our warmest sympathy to the bereaved friends of our comrade, while we rejoice in his firm hope of a blessed immortality.

*Resolved*, That we wear a badge of mourning for thirty days.

*Resolved*, That copies of these resolutions be forwarded to the National Deaf-Mute Gazette for publication, and to the family of the deceased.

#### CHANGES IN CORPS OF OFFICERS.

In March last, Mr. William L. Gallaudet, of New York city, was appointed to fill the position of family supervisor. Mr. Gallaudet brought with him a knowledge of the language of the deaf-mutes acquired in early life, and has proved himself in other respects well qualified to perform the duties he has been called to assume.

At the close of the summer term, our matron, Miss Sarah A. Bliss, finding her health somewhat impaired by her labors here, and fearing a still further undermining of her strength if she remained, resigned her position. She was faithful and untiring in the performance of her duty, and the necessity for her retirement was a matter of much regret among officers and pupils.

Miss Anna A. Pratt, our former efficient assistant matron, has been appointed matron, and entered upon the performance of her duties the 1st of August last.

Mrs. E. L. Denison, who has for some time been a successful teacher of a class in the primary department, has been appointed assistant matron, and we have reason to believe that with the assistance of these ladies, the domestic affairs of the institution will be conducted to our entire satisfaction.

#### THE PRIMARY DEPARTMENT.

The progress of this department has been satisfactory, and has been marked by no unusual event, save the withdrawal of the beneficiaries of the city of Baltimore, who are, by the action of the city council, to be taught hereafter in an institution recently opened in Frederick City, Maryland. A number of Maryland beneficiaries have also been withdrawn by their parents and placed in the new institution.

The effect of these removals is to reduce the number in our primary department about fifty.

The legislative provision for the support of beneficiaries from Maryland remains, however, unchanged, and new pupils may be received hereafter, as heretofore, from any part of the State, on proper application through the county commissioners, or mayor and city council of Baltimore, to the governor.

The reduction of numbers just alluded to, attended, as it is, by a considerable abatement of our revenue, has led us to postpone the introduction of articulation, as proposed in our last report, until our next academic year.

## NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF PRINCIPALS.

It is, however, a source of satisfaction to us to be able to state that the recommendations of our last report relating to the instruction of the deaf and dumb in articulation and reading from the lips are likely to find support in a majority of the established institutions of the country at an early day.

In the month of May last a national conference of principals of institutions for the deaf and dumb was held in this city, to which every principal in the United States was invited. Of the 22 institutions then in operation 14 were represented, within whose walls are assembled more than 2,000 pupils from 22 States of the Union, constituting four-fifths of the deaf and dumb now under instruction in the country. So important a meeting of teachers of deaf-mutes has never before been convened, and its decisions may justly be taken as the judgment of the profession in this country at the present time. After full discussion and mature deliberation the following resolutions were adopted unanimously:

*Resolved.* That in the opinion of this conference it is the duty of all institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb, to provide adequate means for imparting instruction in articulation and lip reading to such of their pupils as may be able to engage with profit in exercises of this nature.

*Resolved.* That while in our judgment it is desirable to give semi-mutes and semi-deaf children every facility for retaining and improving any power of articulate speech they may possess, it is not profitable, except in promising cases, discovered after fair experiment, to carry congenital mutes through a course of instruction in articulation.

*Resolved.* That to attain success in this department of instruction, an added force of instructors will be necessary, and this conference hereby recommends to boards of directors of institutions for the deaf and dumb that speedy measures be taken to provide the funds needed for the prosecution of this work.

A comparison of these resolutions with the recommendations of our last report (1 and 3 on page 54) will show how nearly a coincidence of views has been reached. In several of the larger institutions of the country measures have been promptly taken to carry into effect the resolutions of the conference, and the hope may, we think, be reasonably indulged that at no distant day the deaf-mute institutions of America will combine in their course of instruction the desirable features of the conflicting systems of Heinicke and de l'Épée, justly retaining the position they have long held in the front rank of such establishments throughout the world.

The conference of principals had before it many subjects of great interest to the profession, which were brought forward in able papers. These essays, together with the debates, resolutions, and other proceedings, are submitted as an appendix to this report, and will, it is believed, be read with profit and pleasure by all who have to do in any way with the care or instruction of deaf-mutes. One subject discussed, relating to the work of our own institution, demands special notice in this report since it bears directly on a question in reference to which opposite opinions have been entertained in certain quarters. The collegiate work we have undertaken here since 1864, being without precedent in the annals of educational effort, naturally engendered doubts in the minds of some as to its desirableness and practicability. There were teachers even of deaf-mutes, not to speak of others less familiar with the capabilities of this class of persons, who expressed the opinion that a college was hardly needed for those who had the life-long disability of deafness to contend with. It is, therefore, a matter of no small satisfaction to us that the assembled principals, after free examination of the daily workings of the college, and after full discussion in their conference on the subject of col-

legiate education for the deaf and dumb, saw fit unanimously to adopt the following resolutions:

*Resolved*, That this conference does hereby give its hearty approval to the work of the National Deaf-Mute College, regarding it as an institution essential to the completion of the national system of deaf-mute education.

*Resolved*, That an increase at an early day of the number of free State students now authorized by Congress is called for by every consideration of justice and expediency; and our senators and representatives are hereby requested to make such amendments in the law of March 2, 1867 as may secure to the deaf and dumb of the States equal privileges in the college; and the attention of Congress is respectfully directed to the fact that immense portions of the national domain have been appropriated for the endowment of universities and colleges for hearing and speaking youth, in the advantages of which deaf-mutes cannot participate; hence in the judgment of this conference it is most fitting and proper that a college for this class of persons shut out until recently from the benefits of collegiate education, should be perfected and maintained on a liberal scale by the national government.

These we would respectfully commend to your consideration and to the notice of Congress as expressing from a body of men representing every section of the land, and competent above others to judge in the matter, an opinion certainly entitled to great weight in determining the action of the government with regard to our institution hereafter.

#### GENERAL RELATIONS OF THE INSTITUTION TO THE GOVERNMENT.

It may perhaps be not improper in this report to refer briefly to the relations now sustained by the institution to the government and the country at large, since by successive acts during the past four years Congress has materially changed the character of the institution and widened the scope of its operations. The effect of this legislation has been explained from time to time in our reports, but as the changes produced have been gradual it is proper that the results as finally attained should be distinctly understood. As you are well aware, the primary object in the establishment of this institution was to provide instruction for the deaf and dumb and the blind of the District of Columbia.

Shortly after the opening of the institution in 1857 a law amendatory to the organic act was passed by Congress making full provision for the accomplishment of this object, and admitting, without charge, the children of men in the military or naval service of the United States, on the same conditions as those prescribed for residents of the District of Columbia.

For six years the institution continued its operations within the limits above indicated, when the question arose whether we should be satisfied with carrying our pupils through an elementary course of instruction as had been done in the State institutions, or go further and endeavor to conduct such of them as were qualified through a high school and collegiate course.

Our organic act placed no restrictions upon us as to the period of pupilage of the beneficiaries of the government; it also allowed us to receive and instruct deaf-mutes from the States and Territories of the United States on terms to be agreed upon by ourselves. [See act of February 16, 1857.] We needed nothing for the legal organization of a college save the authority to confer degrees.

This lack was supplied by Congress in the passage of an act, approved April 8, 1864, authorizing us to grant such degrees and diplomas as are usually conferred in colleges.

Shortly after the passage of the above act we decided to establish a collegiate department, and succeeded in so doing in September, 1864.

For a detailed account of the organization and inauguration of the

college, together with the considerations which urged us thereto, we would refer to our seventh annual report. And for further information as to the progress of this branch of our institution we would direct attention to the eighth, ninth, and tenth reports, which have been submitted to your department.

Each year that has passed since the opening of the college we have taken pains to inform the government, through our reports, of the development and needs of the work we are carrying forward; and at each returning session Congress has accorded its approval by making the appropriations for which we asked.

In March, 1867, Congress provided for the free admission of ten students into our college from any of the States and Territories of the United States. The number was shortly filled up, and in July last was increased to twenty-five, and this latter number is now likewise full.

Appropriations have been made for buildings, for lands, for books, for illustrative apparatus, and for the salaries of professors and teachers. Students other than the United States beneficiaries have been admitted on the payment, by themselves or their friends, of the cost of maintenance. Mutes from the District have also entered the college until, from a beginning with five students in 1864, our numbers in this department have risen to forty during the past year. And these represent the States of Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, Michigan, Iowa, and Missouri.

That such an institution had its origin in the midst of exhausting civil war, that appropriations have been liberally made for its support and development during a period when the demands upon the public treasury have been heavy beyond precedent in times of peace, that it stands out the first of its kind in the world, reflects lasting honor upon our government.

That this action of Congress in providing collegiate education for the deaf-mutes of the country is but a deed of equitable benevolence to a worthy, intelligent and large class in the community, will appear on a fair consideration of the closing paragraph of the second resolution. For none will deny that a government which has appropriated many millions of acres of public lands for the endowment of colleges and universities which will, in every quarter of the country through all coming time, dispense the blessings of scientific and literary culture to hearing and speaking youth, must, to be even consistent with itself, make some similar provision for the deaf; while a due regard to the disabilities under which the latter labor in the emulations of life, would to most minds present an appeal for more liberal assistance during the dependent and formative years of youth.

But it has been urged that the States should do this work in their respective institutions, and that the government should not be charged with the expense.

To this objection we would present, in reply, the question whether the hundred or hundred and fifty mute youth in the country deserving and needing a collegiate education (and the number will not probably be greater than this at any one time during the present century) could be as well or more cheaply taught in thirty different establishments, under an equal or greater number of instructors as in one well organized college with a corps of six or eight professors. And again the question will be pertinent whether the disintegration of all our colleges and the scattering of the fragments among the district schools of the country would tend to the advancement of public education or public economy.

And will the States economize when they tax themselves a hundred thousand dollars per annum for the purpose of half doing a work which the general government can do well at a cost to the people of less than half this sum?

As bearing on the importance of a collegiate education to those deaf-mutes who are capable of profiting thereby, we would direct especial attention to our ninth report, (Appendix C,) and in particular to a paper read before the conference of principals, which will be found in the proceedings appended hereto, entitled "The College."

#### THE COLLEGE.

We take pleasure in reporting a more marked advancement in this branch of our institution during the past year than in any preceding period of equal length.

The following schedule of studies will indicate the range of instruction afforded, and we feel justified in claiming that our students make as creditable attainments in their respective years as the average of hearing and speaking youth.

#### STUDIES OF THE PREPARATORY CLASS.

Arithmetic, English Grammar, Physical Geography, Elements of Natural Philosophy, and Botany, Algebra to quadratic equations, Latin.

#### STUDIES OF THE FRESHMAN CLASS.

Algebra, (completed,) Geometry, Latin, Greek, English Composition, Book-keeping.\*

#### STUDIES OF THE SOPHOMORE CLASS.

Spherical and Solid Geometry, Conic Sections, Trigonometry, Mensuration, Navigation, and Surveying. Latin, Greek,\* French, Chemistry, English Philology, History.

#### STUDIES OF THE JUNIOR CLASS.

Mechanics, Astronomy, Mineralogy, Geology, Botany, German, Latin, Rhetoric, Greek,\* History of Civilization.

#### STUDIES OF THE SENIOR CLASS.

Anatomy and Physiology, Zoology, Logic, Mental Philosophy, Political Science, and Constitution, Moral Philosophy, Evidences of Christianity, English Literature, Aesthetics.

Instruction in Art is also given to those who desire it.

#### PROGRESS OF THE BUILDINGS.

In our last report we asked an appropriation of \$48,000 to be made available in the first quarter of 1868, that we might prepare for occupancy this year a section of the main central building, then standing one story high.

Action was, however, deferred on the appropriation until the closing day of the session, so that when it passed, July 27, the season for building operations was too far advanced to admit of the completion of any portion of the building in time for the opening of our fall term in September.

We have therefore determined to defer the resumption of the work on

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\* Optional studies.

this building until next spring, taking advantage of the winter months for the preparation of material, cutting of stone and such other preliminary work as may enable us to press forward in March with as great rapidity as is consistent with substantial construction.

The president's dwelling-house alluded to in our last report as being under roof is now nearly completed and will be habitable in the course of a few weeks.

The completion of the main central building, which we hope to effect during 1869, will leave only the college extension indicated on the plans submitted in our ninth report to be constructed, and the buildings needed for the accommodation of all departments of the institution will be provided. An extension of the shop, and other dwelling-houses for the professors, may in future years be required, but the cost of these will be small compared with the expenditures of the last, the present, or the next year.

We may therefore point to a time in the near future when our demands on the public treasury will be limited to a provision for current expenses and repairs.

Attention has been called in Congress and by yourself to the fact that the title to real estate purchased and buildings erected out of appropriations made by the general government should be vested in the United States and not in an incorporated body.

The law of July 27, 1868, restricts us from disposing of any real estate, except as authorized by special act of Congress, and would seem to furnish a sufficient guarantee of the proper disposition of the property we have acquired by virtue of the bounty of the government. But lest there should still be objections raised in Congress or elsewhere to the propriety of the appropriations we shall need to complete our buildings, we desire to record our entire willingness that the title to all property purchased with the public funds should be vested in the United States. And we hold ourselves ready, if Congress shall so desire, to make over the title to all property we have heretofore acquired in the manner above indicated, provided only it shall be agreed that the property shall be held sacred to the purposes for which it has heretofore been set apart.

#### THE RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

for the year ending June 30, 1868, will appear from the following detailed statements.

##### I.—*Support of the institution.*

###### RECEIPTS.

Balance from old accounts.....	\$1,368 07
Received from treasury United States.....	24,873 34
State of Maryland for support of pupils.....	6,156 00
city of Baltimore for support of pupils.....	2,750 00
board and tuition.....	1,155 50
scholarships.....	1,350 00
students for books, &c.....	288 79
pupils for clothing.....	41 60
damage to grounds by cattle.....	10 00
work done in shop.....	91 12
loan First National Bank.....	4,000 00
sale of old barn and house.....	450 00
sale of pigs.....	70 00
balance.....	1,064 85
	<hr/>
	43,669 27

## DISBURSEMENTS.

Expended for salaries and wages.....	\$17, 117 53
medical attendance and dentist's services.....	795 50
medicine and chemicals.....	238 90
fuel and light.....	1, 793 21
oats and grain.....	467 71
blacksmithing.....	110 76
two carriages.....	700 00
carriage repairs and harness.....	328 03
freight.....	134 41
queensware.....	114 81
hardware.....	92 35
tuition refunded.....	28 88
clothing and dry goods.....	240 80
carriage hire.....	57 50
funeral expenses.....	114 67
paint, glass, &c.....	192 50
silver plating.....	21 85
travelling expenses.....	1, 295 76
butter and eggs.....	3, 163 52
household expenses, vegetables, &c.....	1, 715 48
books, stationary and printing.....	732 54
repairs on buildings.....	818 00
groceries.....	3, 408 73
bread.....	2, 513 84
meats.....	5, 634 71
milk.....	949 07
furniture and household articles.....	566 21
kitchen utensils and repairing.....	88 55
shoes and repairing.....	163 45
whitewashing.....	70 00
	<hr/>
	43, 669 27
	<hr/>

II.—*Erection of buildings.*

## RECEIPTS.

Received from appropriation.....	\$54, 675 00
balance due the president.....	1, 971 95
	<hr/>
	56, 646 95
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## DISBURSEMENTS.

Balance from last account.....	\$32 83
Paid James G. Naylor on contracts.....	44, 650 50
A. R. Shepherd & Bros., for completing gas works and laying mains.....	3, 104 03
A. R. Shepherd & Bros., for plumbing.....	2, 512 20
for building materials and hardware.....	1, 685 44
E. S. Friedrich, for services as supervising architect.....	1, 430 33
Vaux, Withers & Co., for preparing plans and specifications.....	1, 500 00
for furniture.....	1, 210 52
for wages and labor.....	520 50
	<hr/>
	56, 646 95
	<hr/>

III.—*Increased supply of Potomac water.*

## RECEIPTS.

Received from appropriation.....	\$5, 000 00
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## DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid A. R. Shepherd & Bros. for laying a 4-inch pipe from the junction of Third street east, and M street north, to the buildings of the institution.....	\$3,148 90
A. R. Shepherd & Bros. for running pipes and placing fixtures in buildings.....	716 20
Balance due the United States July 1, 1865 .....	1,134 90
	<u>5,000 00</u>

IV.—*Enlargement and improvement of grounds.*

## RECEIPTS.

Balance from old accounts.....	\$3,783 24
Received from appropriation.....	7,500 00
Balance due the president .....	179 55
	<u>11,462 79</u>

## DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid Mrs. Catharine Pearson for land purchased March 27, 1867 .....	\$9,000 00
for fencing .....	156 25
for grading .....	863 97
for draining .....	779 40
for paving and curbing.....	347 12
for gardener's wages.....	316 05
	<u>11,462 79</u>

## ESTIMATES FOR NEXT YEAR.

1. For the support of the institution, including \$1,000 for books and illustrative apparatus, \$31,500.

2. For continuing the work on the buildings in accordance with plans heretofore submitted to Congress, \$66,000.

3. For continuing the work on the enclosure and improvement of the grounds of the institution, \$4,000.

The amount asked for the support of the institution is \$3,500 in excess of the appropriations for last year, and \$1,500 greater than the amount required for the present year, the increase being to provide for a corresponding increase in the number of our United States beneficiaries.

The second appropriation is needed to complete the main central building, referred to earlier in this report. The importance of the speedy completion of this building will be apparent on an inspection of the works as they now stand, and an examination into the crowded condition of nearly every available portion of the occupied buildings.

Especially in the domestic department is the need of more room most plainly evident.

The kitchen, laundry and dining-rooms now in use are utterly insufficient for a proper fulfilment of the functions they are made to perform, and are wholly temporary and provisional, their proper location being in the building now in process of construction, and which the appropriation asked for is designed to complete.

The third estimate is needed for the purposes indicated, and its appropriation will conduce to the safety of our property, to the comfort and health of our inmates by providing suitable walks for exercise, and to the productiveness of the grounds set apart for agricultural and horticultural purposes.



During the summer just closed the products from our cultivated grounds have been more valuable than in any previous year, heavy crops of hay, corn and vegetables having been secured, all of which have gone to lessen the expense of maintaining the institution. The labor of pupils has been largely employed in the field and garden, and may be made still more available when our grounds shall have been fully improved.

We are under the necessity of submitting a further estimate to meet a deficiency which will arise during the present fiscal year. The estimate submitted by us and by you for the support of the institution during the present year was for \$25,000. Approved of by the Senate and by the Committee on Appropriations of the House, it was opposed in the House in the following language :

"And now, sir, the Senate have put in this sum of \$25,000 for expenses &c., for the coming year. I have submitted an amendment to reduce the amount to \$12,500. In 1866 there were twenty-two pupils, and we gave them \$12,500; I propose to give them the same amount for this year; it is to pay the teachers for this institution, and for the education of the twenty-five pupils whom we undertake to educate."

A reference to the records of the institution will reveal the fact that in 1866 there were twenty-seven United States beneficiaries in the institution, and the amount provided by Congress for the support of the institution was \$15,937 50, while last year the number of United States pupils had risen to forty-one, and the amount appropriated was \$20,434 14. For the present year, from the action of Congress itself in the act of July 27, 1868, and by the regular accessions from the District of Columbia, our number will be increased to upwards of sixty.

We sincerely regret that so grave a misapprehension of facts should have existed, for in the hurry of closing legislation, when no opportunity was offered us of correcting the errors, the amendment proposed became a law, leaving us without the means of fulfilling the tasks which Congress by its own legislation had imposed upon us. We cannot think otherwise, however, than that those who sustained the amendment will clearly see the justice of a deficiency to meet the exigencies of the case and be prompt to allow the needed appropriation.

The number of sixty government pupils for whose support and instruction we are called upon to provide the present year would, by the scale of allowances proposed in the amendment, call for an expenditure of \$35,000. We, however, estimate that by the exercise of rigid economy we shall be able to meet the current burdens of the year with \$30,000.

Twelve thousand five hundred dollars having been appropriated, the sum of \$17,500 will be needed to meet the expenses of the year ending June 30, 1869. The following estimate is therefore submitted :

For the support of the institution for the year ending June 30, 1869, \$17,500.

In view of all the considerations above recited, and in the hope that they may commend themselves to you and to Congress, we respectfully recommend that appropriations be asked at the approaching session of Congress in accordance with the estimates submitted in this report.

By order of the board of directors:

E. M. GALLAUDET, *President.*

Hon. O. H. BROWNING,  
*Secretary of the Interior.*

# ELEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE CATALOGUE OF STUDENTS AND PUPILS.

## *In the college.*

### RESIDENT GRADUATE.

Mellville Ballard, B. S. .... Maine.

### SENIORS.

John B. Hotchkiss..... Connecticut.	Joseph G. Parkinson..... Vermont.
James H. Logan..... Pennsylvania.	

### JUNIORS.

William L. Bird ..... Connecticut.	Robert Patterson..... Pennsylvania.
Samuel T. Greene..... Maine	Louis C. Tuck ..... Massachusetts.
Louis A. Houghton..... New York.	

### SOPHOMORES.

Philip S. Engelhardt..... Wisconsin.	† George W. McAtee..... Maryland.
* Anthony J. Kull..... Wisconsin.	

\* Deceased. † Expelled.

### FRESHMEN.

James E. Beller..... New York.	Thomas A. Jones..... Wisconsin.
David H. Carroll..... Ohio.	William B. Lathrop..... Georgia.
Cyrus Chambers..... Iowa.	John N. Lowry..... Michigan.
John Donnell..... Wisconsin.	Robert McGregor..... Ohio.
Amos G. Draper..... Illinois.	Frederick L. de B. Reid.. New York.
Charles B. Hibbard..... Michigan.	John W. Scott..... Pennsylvania.
William L. Hill..... Massachusetts.	

### PREPARATORY CLASS.

Robert W. Branch..... North Carolina.	Isaac Kaufmann..... Dist. Columbia.
Edward L. Chapin..... Dist. Columbia.	Marcus H. Kerr..... Michigan.
Julius C. Dargan..... South Carolina.	Jacob H. Knoedler..... Pennsylvania.
Ransom A. Goodell..... Michigan.	William J. Nelson..... New York.
Robert M. Henderson..... Pennsylvania.	John Quinn..... Dist. Columbia.
John C. Hummer..... Iowa.	David S. Rogers..... South Carolina.
William S. Johnson..... Georgia.	Charles G. Rooks..... Michigan.

## *In the primary department.*

### FEMALES.

Justina Bevan..... Maryland.	Mary E. McDonald..... Dist. Columbia.
Melinda Blair..... Maryland.	Virginia A. Patterson.... U. S. Army.
Sarah B. Blair..... Maryland.	Jane Pimes..... Maryland.
Marietta Chambers..... Fortress Monroe.	Hester M. Porter..... Maryland.
Elizabeth Feldpusch..... Maryland.	Sarah E. Preston..... Maryland.
Mary Feldpusch..... Maryland.	Georgiana Pritchard..... Maryland.
Grace A. Freeman..... Maryland.	Amelia Riveaux..... Dist. Columbia.
Sarah A. Gourley..... Maryland.	Josephine Sardo..... Dist. Columbia.
Catharine Haldy..... Maryland.	Florinda C. Snyder..... Dist. Columbia.
Mary M. Ijams..... Dist. Columbia.	Catharine T. Steigelman.. Maryland.
Amanda M. Karnes..... Maryland.	Grace Webster..... Maryland.
Lydia Lightner..... Maryland.	Sarah J. Wells..... Maryland.
Caroline Mades..... Dist. Columbia.	Sophia R. Weller..... Dist. Columbia.
Elizabeth McCormick..... Maryland.	Sarah A. E. Williams..... Dist. Columbia.
Lydia A. Mitchell..... Maryland.	

## MALES.

H. F. Achy.....	Maryland.	Edward Humphrey.....	Dist. Columbia.
J. O. Amoss.....	Maryland.	R. Plummer Ijams.....	Dist. Columbia.
Joseph Barnes.....	Dist. Columbia.	Edward Jennings.....	Maryland.
James D. Bitzer.....	Maryland.	David Kennedy.....	Maryland.
Julius W. Bissett.....	Maryland.	John Kennedy.....	Maryland.
David Blair.....	Maryland.	Frank M. Maslin.....	Maryland.
Arthur D. Bryant.....	Dist. Columbia.	Charles Muthæi.....	Maryland.
John E. Bull.....	Maryland.	G. E. Messenburg.....	Maryland.
Edward T. Burns.....	Dist. Columbia.	William H. Myers.....	Dist. Columbia.
Edward Carter.....	Dist. Columbia.	William McElroy.....	Maryland.
Edmund Clark.....	Dist. Columbia.	James McBride.....	Dist. Columbia.
John Carlisle.....	Maryland.	James H. Mooney.....	Maryland.
James E. Colleberry.....	Maryland.	William Moriarty.....	Dist. Columbia.
William A. Connolly.....	Dist. Columbia.	Henry O. Nicol.....	U. S. Army.
Henry Dahl.....	Maryland.	James H. Purvis.....	Dist. Columbia.
Charles Dashiell.....	Maryland.	George Romml.....	Maryland.
William F. Deeble.....	Dist. Columbia.	George F. Rodenmayer.....	Maryland.
John W. Dechard.....	Dist. Columbia.	Charles Schillinger.....	Maryland.
Alexander W. Dennis.....	Dist. Columbia.	Aaron B. Showman.....	Maryland.
Peter Duffy.....	Maryland.	Thomas J. Sprague.....	Maryland.
Lewis C. Easterday.....	Maryland.	Charles W. Stevenson.....	Maryland.
Frederick Eisenmann.....	U. S. Army.	Henry Trieschmann, jr.....	Maryland.
Robert Ehlert.....	Maryland.	John C. Wagner.....	Dist. Columbia.
John P. Fitzpatrick.....	Maryland.	Henry C. Wentz.....	Maryland.
Abram Frantz.....	Pennsylvania.	Louis Whittington.....	Dist. Columbia.
Thomas Hagerty.....	Dist. Columbia.	William Wirlein.....	Maryland.
Thomas Hays.....	Maryland.	Samuel Wisner.....	Maryland.

## REGULATIONS.

I. The academic year is divided into two terms, the first beginning on the second Thursday in September, and closing on the 24th of December; the second beginning the 2d of January, and closing the last Wednesday in June.

II. The vacations are from the 24th of December to the 2d of January, and from the last Wednesday in June to the second Thursday in September.

III. There are holidays at Thanksgiving and at Easter.

IV. The pupils may visit their homes during the regular vacations and at the above-named holidays, but at no other times, unless for some special urgent reason, and then only by permission of the president.

V. The bills for the maintenance and tuition of pupils supported by their friends must be paid semi-annually in advance.

VI. The charge for pay pupils is \$150 each per annum. This sum covers all expenses except clothing.

VII. The government of the United States defrays the expenses of those who reside in the District of Columbia, or whose parents are in the army or navy, provided they are unable to pay for their education.

VIII. The State of Maryland provides for the education in this institution of deaf-mutes whose parents are in poor circumstances, when the applicants are under twenty-one years of age, have been residents of the State for two years prior to the date of application, and are of good mental capacity.

Persons in Maryland desiring to secure the benefit of the provisions above referred to are requested to address the president of the institution.

IX. It is expected that the friends of the pupils will provide them with clothing, and it is important that upon entering or returning to the institution they should be supplied with a sufficient amount for an entire year. All clothing should be plainly marked with the owner's name.

X. All letters concerning pupils or applications for admission should be addressed to the president.

## APPENDIX.

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*Proceedings of the National Conference of principals of institutions for the deaf and dumb, held at Washington, District of Columbia, May 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16, 1868.*

In March, 1868, the following invitation was extended by the officers of the Columbia Institution to the principals of all the institutions for the deaf and dumb in the United States:

WASHINGTON, D. C., *March, 1868.*

SIR: The increased interest manifested by the public during the past year in the education of the deaf and dumb, taking in certain localities the form of hostility to the system of instruction successfully practiced in this country for a half century, has led the officers of this institution to consider the present an opportune time for the assembling in conference of those best fitted by practical experience and long study to judge what measures and methods will most conduce to the welfare of the deaf and dumb of our country.

Besides the issues involved in what may be termed the articulation controversy, there are other and more important subjects which would naturally be suggested in a conference of the character referred to, the discussion of which could not fail to elicit an interchange of ideas valuable to our profession, and tending to benefit those for whose advancement all our labors are put forth.

We have, therefore, determined to invite the principals of the regular institutions of the United States to meet here on Tuesday, the 12th day of May next, to discuss on the three following days such questions as may be brought forward relating to the work of deaf-mute education. To this conference we would respectfully and cordially invite your attendance, and would suggest that you prepare for presentation one or more papers on such subjects as may have received your particular attention, or which you may deem of special importance in our work.

Accommodations for all who may attend will be provided in or very near the institution. It is therefore requested that intentions to be present may be communicated as soon as convenient.

It is also suggested that those who design to submit papers announce the titles in advance. In behalf of the officers of the Columbia Institution:

E. M. GALLAUDET, *President.*

In accordance with this invitation the principals met for organization in the library of the Columbia Institution on Tuesday, May 12, at eight o'clock p.m., twelve institutions being represented. Mr. E. M. Gallaudet, president of the Columbia Institution, expressed his great pleasure in greeting so many experienced teachers of the deaf and dumb, who, in response to the call sent forth, had come hither to consult upon interests which all had at heart, and to deliberate for the welfare of those to whom they had given their life's work; and in behalf of himself and the officers of the institution, extended to all present a most hearty welcome, promising on the part of all connected with the institution, sincere efforts to make their stay profitable and agreeable. He then nominated Dr. H. P. Peet, of the New York institution, whom he styled the Nestor of the profession, and to whom he personally expressed pleasure that he was able to be present, to act as chairman of the preliminary meeting. Dr. Peet, having been unanimously chosen to this office, in taking the chair thanked the conference for the honor conferred upon him, and alluded to the topics which would be likely to engage the consideration of the conference, and the great benefits to those present and the institutions they represented, to be derived from a full and free interchange of views. He

also gave account of the accidental presentation to him by a tutor in Yale college of a letter from Dr. Thomas H. Gallaudet, applying for a new teacher, which first directed his attention to the profession of teaching deaf-mutes, and of a casual ride in a stage-coach with the present president of the Columbia Institution, which, occurring just before application was made by the Hon. Amos Kendall for a suitable person to take charge of the new institution at Washington, directed his attention to Mr. Gallaudet as the right man for the place and led to his appointment to the position, showing that a man's life-work is often determined by events which at the time seem slight and insignificant. He congratulated the Columbia Institution for the remarkable success that had followed it, and especially in the organization of the college and in the broad and comprehensive work there undertaken. He spoke of the development of this institution into a national high school as having been a favorite thought in his mind when the organization of an institution in the District of Columbia was first brought to his notice, and he rejoiced in all that had here been accomplished.

Hon. Amos Kendall, one of the directors of the Columbia Institution and its first president, then followed, saying, that he joined heartily with the president of the institution in welcoming the members of the conference to this city and this institution, and that he personally felt great gratification in meeting so many earnest workers in a good cause. He then alluded to the early history of the institution, the bringing together of a few poor children, whose case attracted the sympathy of the people of Washington, and whose condition led to an examination of their wants and of those in the District, and that to a legal transfer of their case to himself; then of the organization of the institution and the appointment of Mr. Gallaudet to its superintendency. He attributed the rapid growth of the institution under God to the energy, fidelity, and wisdom with which its affairs had been conducted by the president. He spoke of the college as a marked feature in the work here, and of its success as justly an occasion of pride and gratification. Alluding to the subject of different methods of teaching the deaf and dumb, he said that this institution, feeling it desirable that American institutions should avail themselves of all the suggestions gained from observation of the work in other countries, had commissioned the president to go to Europe and examine the schools for the deaf and dumb in Great Britain and on the continent, and in accordance with this he had gone during the past year, and the results of his investigation had been given to the world in his able and clear report published soon after his return. Following his suggestions, this institution has already voted to secure the services of a competent instructor in articulation, whose time should be devoted to training such of the pupils as gave promise of improvement by that method. They hoped to have such a teacher at the beginning of the next term. He concluded by expressing his interest in the objects which had brought them together and his appreciation of the great importance and value of the work in which all teachers of the deaf and dumb are engaged, a work that must be dear to the Saviour of men.

On motion of Rev. Thomas Gallaudet, of New York, Professor Edward A. Fay, of the National Deaf-mute College, was appointed secretary of the meeting.

On motion of E. M. Gallaudet, a business committee was appointed by the chair, consisting of Messrs. Gallaudet of Washington, Turner of Hartford, Milligan of Wisconsin, and Palmer of North Carolina, to report roll of members, nominate permanent officers, recommend order of business and topics for discussion.

Waiting the report of this committee, a motion to adjourn having been made, Rev. W. W. Turner, at the request of the chairman, led the meeting in prayer, after which the conference adjourned to meet at nine o'clock Wednesday morning.

After the adjournment, an informal meeting was held at which the principals present were called upon for reports from their several institutions. These reports, giving various items of interest, such as number of pupils, number of teachers, length of course, condition of grounds and buildings, incidents in the history, were very interesting, especially those from the institutions of the south, which had experienced greatest interruption on account of the war. Mr. Palmer gave many illustrations of the difficulties he experienced in maintaining his institution and keeping it from molestation from the armies alternately in possession of Raleigh. His politics had always been "to honor the powers that be and take care of the deaf and dumb." This meeting, which was free and cordial, put the members of the conference *en rapport* with each other, giving to each a knowledge of the others' position, difficulties and peculiarities, and was a fitting prelude to the harmonious discussions that followed.

### WEDNESDAY MORNING.

Conference met at the hour for morning prayers in the college chapel, the students assembling with them. Scriptures were read by President Gallaudet and prayer offered by Rev. Collins Stone. Immediately after the religious exercises the chairman called the conference to order. The minutes of the preliminary meeting were read by Professor E. A. Fay, the secretary, and approved.

The chairman of the committee of arrangements presented the following report, which was accepted:

The committee of arrangements respectfully recommend the following gentlemen to be the permanent officers of the conference:

H. P. Peet, LL. D., *President*.  
 Rev. Collins Stone, Phillip G. Gillett, *Vice-Presidents*.  
 W. J. Palmer, Lewellyn Pratt, *Secretaries*.

The committee report also the following membership of the conference;

Rev. W. W. Turner, *ex-Principal American Asylum*.  
 Rev. Collins Stone, *Principal American Asylum*.  
 H. P. Peet, *Emeritus Principal New York Institution*.  
 Isaac L. Peet, *Principal New York Institution*.  
 Gilbert O. Fay, *Principal Ohio Institution*.  
 J. C. Covell, *Principal Virginia Institution*.  
 Rev. Thomas McIntire, *Principal Indiana Institution*.  
 Willie J. Palmer, *Principal North Carolina Institution*.  
 Phillip G. Gillett, *Principal Illinois Institution*.  
 Wesley O. Connor, *Principal Georgia Institution*.  
 W. D. Kerr, *Principal Missouri Institution*.  
 E. M. Kerr, *Vice-Principal Missouri Institution*.  
 H. W. Milligan, M. D., *Principal Wisconsin Institution*.  
 Egbert L. Bangs, *Principal Michigan Institution*.  
 Rev. Benjamin Talbot, *Principal Iowa Institution*.  
 E. M. Gallaudet, *President Columbia Institution*.  
 Joseph H. Johnson, M. D., *Principal Alabama Institution*.  
 \* Warring Wilkinson, *Principal California Institution*.

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\* Mr. Wilkinson had written that he expected to be present and his name was inserted in the list of members, but being detained on the steamer did not reach Washington till conference had adjourned.

## AS HONORARY MEMBERS.

Hon. Amos Kendall, *of Washington.*  
 Rev. Thomas Gallaudet, D. D., *of New York.*  
 Prof. Samuel Porter, *of Washington.*  
 Prof. Lewellyn Pratt, *of Washington.*  
 Prof. Edward A. Fay, *of Washington.*  
 Prof. James M. Spencer, *of Washington.*  
 Mr. James Denison, *of Washington.*  
 Mr. Melville Ballard, *of Washington.*

And that the instructors and officers of the Columbia Institution be invited to be present at the meetings of the conference.

The committee also recommend that meetings be held Wednesday morning, Thursday morning and afternoon, Friday morning, afternoon and evening, and that the order of business for Wednesday morning be—

- 1st. Reading of letters.
- 2d. Paper by H. P. Peet, LL. D. Subject: The order of the first lessons in language for a class of deaf-mutes.
- 3d. Paper by M. L. Brock. Subject: The better method of teaching a class of beginners.
- 4th. Paper by Rev. Benjamin Talbot. Subject: The proper age for admissions to the institutions for the deaf and dumb.

E. M. GALLAUDET,  
*Chairman of Committee.*

The recommendations of the committee respecting organization and order of business were unanimously adopted, and the officers appointed entered upon the discharge of their duties.

The first business was the reading of letters, and the secretary presented letters from J. L. Noyes, superintendent of the Minnesota institution, Lewis H. Jenkins, principal Kansas institution, J. Van Nostrand, superintendent of the Texas institution, J. A. Jacobs, principal Kentucky institution, and Dr. Milligan delivered a verbal message from A. B. Hutton, principal Pennsylvania institution, all expressing regret that they could not be present at the meetings of the conference and interest in the object for which the conference had assembled.

Rev. Collins Stone, one of the vice-presidents, then having taken the chair, the president, Dr. Peet, read the first paper.

#### THE ORDER OF THE FIRST LESSONS IN LANGUAGE FOR A CLASS OF DEAF-MUTES.

Twenty-four years have passed since the first publication of a little volume entitled *Elementary Lessons for the Deaf and Dumb*. This work was welcomed at the time with general satisfaction, almost with enthusiasm, by teachers of deaf-mutes, as supplying a want that had long been felt. Carefully revised two or three years later, it has been in use ever since in the New York institution, and in several other institutions in the United States, as a first book to be used in the younger classes.

The plan of this work aimed at something more than a mere miscellaneous collection of familiar words and phrases. It embodied the most earnest systematic attempt in our language to write a first book for deaf-mutes on a principle of philosophical progress. It was a work to which had been given careful reflection and faithful labor, guided by long experience, and by diligent study of previous efforts in the same direction.

While this work has maintained its ground during nearly a quarter of a century, as the book in more general esteem and demand for the use of a class of deaf-mute beginners, it has never been claimed for it that it did not admit much further improvement. To cite from a paper read at

the second convention of the American teachers of the deaf and dumb, nearly 17 years ago:

Though resting in the conviction, confirmed alike by reason and experience, that the general plan on which the course of instruction has been formed is the true one, and will, in its main features, stand the test of time, I am very far from imagining that it cannot be improved, that in some parts a better order of lessons cannot be devised, that more happily chosen examples cannot be given. It is only through repeated revisions, and the modifications suggested by experience of many years, that a work of this kind can be expected to reach all the perfection of which it is capable.\*

I regret to have to say that my cares and responsibilities have been so multitudinous that the leisure and opportunity to carefully revise at least the elementary volume of the course, long looked forward to, never came. Compelled by the burden of advancing years to leave that labor for younger teachers, I yet feel it a duty to put on record, for the benefit of those who are coming after me, the results of my experience, study, and reflection, as to the proper order in which the difficulties of language should be presented to the deaf and dumb. Let us inquire what is the point of departure, the point to be aimed at, and the general principles that should guide our choice of our route. These points being settled, we shall find it comparatively easy to agree on the most advantageous route through the vast mazes of language, a route necessarily devious, and presenting at many points difficulties of choice which only experience can solve. My present object is to show that the elementary lessons were constructed on correct principles. These principles being agreed on, the modifications of details can be made in such a way as to insure improvement.

The only objections, so far as I know, that have been made to the plan and execution of the elementary lessons, are, that it introduces grammar too early in the course, and that it does not introduce lessons in "connected language" early enough. The first objection is a misconception. There is nothing of *technical* grammar in the elementary lessons. Words are indeed arranged according to their grammatical affinities; but every teacher will admit that if the deaf-mute pupil, coming to us wholly ignorant of words, is to be taught the meaning and right use of words at all, he must be taught that certain words are names of objects, that certain words are joined to the former to distinguish them by their qualities, and that certain other words, expressing *assertion*, and usually also *action*, have different inflections and a different place in the sentence from the first. Children who hear learn words in spite of the miscellaneous way in which words are presented to them. The deaf and dumb, to whose memories words are a much greater burden, and who lose most of that living interest which is given by the simultaneity of words and facts, need all the advantages that order and gradation of difficulties can give them.

The second objection may seem to some to have more weight. Yet all teachers will admit the propriety of beginning with short single words, passing to short simple sentences, and not introducing lessons in "connected language" till they can be introduced with advantage. How soon they can be thus introduced depends on so many considerations that we shall probably never see entire agreement of views on that point. I note, however, that in the only work that is used in this country by some teachers in preference to the elementary lessons, though professedly introducing lessons in connected language "earlier than usual," does not in fact introduce them earlier than the elementary lessons. Several serious difficulties of language, it is true, by being introduced in a more "desultory way," are rapidly reached.

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\*Proceedings of the second convention, p. 62.



In the instruction of the deaf and dumb, it may be assumed that the point of departure, in most cases, is utter ignorance of words, and a mind so little developed as to be destitute of nearly all the ideas which we express by words, beyond the images of visible objects, which, with their actions and qualities, pass through the mind as in a *camera obscura*.

This mind is to be led, so far as time and natural capacity will admit, to the full mastery of one of the most copious languages spoken by man. And to the mastery of a language it is essential that the student should become able to think and reason in the words and sentences of that language—that is to say, in this case, in their written or manually spelled equivalents. This is an ability, indeed, seldom attained to the full extent by true deaf-mutes; still we should make it the mark at which we aim. The more nearly that mark is attained the more useful will his knowledge of our language be to the pupil.

There are two principles distinctly set forth in the preface to the first edition of the elementary lessons which have long been considered as axioms, and which have been the guides to the determination of the order of lessons: First, that ideas should precede words; and second, that difficulties should be divided as much as possible, and presented one by one to the pupils.

The first of these axioms teaches us not to make haste to introduce words or forms of construction till we are sure the pupil can grasp the idea they represent; in other words, to let the development of his lessons in language wait upon the development of his ideas. The second teaches us to begin with short words that are names of familiar objects, and to introduce one by one the elements of language in the order of their simplicity, and the ease with which a deaf-mute will use them correctly and intelligently in sentences of his own. The first axiom has a material influence on the practical application of the second, for in a graduation of difficulties, that must be taken to be the least which is the most readily comprehensible to a deaf-mute. Another consideration of great moment is, so far as practicable, to arrange difficulties so that each one mastered shall serve as a stepping-stone to the next.

There are other principles that are to be kept in view in the preparation of a course of lessons, such as the advantage of illustrating words and phrases by *contrast*, and the great advantage for deaf-mute children of repeating every form of construction in a sort of stanza or little nursery form, so to speak, in which, under the same form of construction, a long succession of pleasing ideas and lively figures shall be called up.

Let us pass to details. The first step is one in which nearly all teachers of deaf-mutes agree. We present to the pupil several familiar objects and point to their names, printed or written. A more advanced pupil is called in, who, on being shown any one of the names, points at once to the object it represents; and, *vice versa*, the object being shown, points to the name. This process is repeated till the pupil has thoroughly acquired the first great lesson in language, that certain combinations of letters represent certain objects.

This lesson, and the teaching of the manual alphabet, will be to the pupil merely interesting plays. The study of set lessons, in which he is to commit to memory daily five or six words, will be his first introduction to a mental task. The pictures in which these lessons are illustrated will make them more attractive; but his early progress will depend very much on the ability of his teacher to awaken his long dormant faculties and interest him in his otherwise dry studies by means of little descriptions and incidents connected with the objects of his lessons related in a clear and graphic pantomime.

In the instruction of the deaf and dumb more especially, the motto of the teacher should be *repeat* and *review*. At this stage of his progress the pupil has scarcely any other practice in the use of words than that he has in the school-room; and as words and phrases can only be fixed in his memory by frequent repetition, the teacher must so arrange his school-room exercises that he shall use many times every word he has learned in different combinations, and every form of construction with different words. Let his early lessons especially be indelibly impressed on his memory by frequent reviews. It is self-evident that nothing is gained by such hurry of progress that, while seeming to advance rapidly, the pupil is in fact losing his acquisitions as fast as he makes them.

And yet this thoroughness is not inconsistent with rapidity of progress; several new words should be taught daily; new forms of construction should be introduced as fast as the old ones become familiar. When a new word or a new form of construction is introduced, let it be repeated in sentences in which as many as possible of the words already known shall be repeated. This should be done to some extent in the volume of elementary lessons itself; but the teacher should carry out the principle to a much greater extent in the school-room.

To return: the second step of the course is one in which most teachers agree. There are, indeed, some who prefer to pass at once from the little vocabulary of familiar names, long enough to give practice in writing all the letters of the alphabet, to short sentences embracing a noun and a verb; but the majority agree with the celebrated Bebian, that the adjective more naturally follows the noun.

The *adjective* is much more easy of comprehension to a deaf-mute than the verb; for while the former represents *quality* simply, (and the first adjectives taught should express the most obvious qualities, those by which objects of the same name are familiarly distinguished from each other,) the latter is complicated by *time*, *assertion*, *transitivity*, and other modifications. Nothing is easier than to explain to a deaf-mute, the actions expressed by many verbs, but the essential part of the verb, its reference to time and assertion, will, at this early stage, be either vaguely apprehended, or not at all. Thus the pupil, left without any other guide to the use of verbs than his own dialect of pantomime, necessarily uses them incorrectly, and acquires vicious and peculiar modes of expression, of which it is difficult afterward to break him. Moreover, in teaching adjectives, we have in our language no variation of termination to embarrass the pupil, (the degrees of comparison being by common consent reserved to a much later period,) while the use of the simplest verbs (unless we have recourse to an uncouth jargon for the early lessons, like some of the German teachers) involves the necessity of teaching a perplexing variety of inflections.\*

We also hold it a great point gained when we can lead the pupil to combine words into phrases without confusion of ideas, and to perceive distinctly that two or more words, in a certain customary order, represent but one object. By practicing him early in writing such phrases as "A white horse," "A black cat," "A yellow flower," "A blue ribbon," and a few lessons later, "A large white horse" "A large black cat," "A wide blue ribbon," &c., we make an important step toward teaching him to think in words, and enabling him to attach clear and correct ideas to collections of words that are apt to puzzle deaf-mutes less carefully and systematically instructed.

For these reasons we prefer to teach, before coming to the greater dif-

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\* Proceedings of the second convention, page 47.

faculties of the verb, a select number of adjectives, beginning with such as can be illustrated by cuts; and for the sake of the benefit derived by *contrast*, preferring rather to introduce *first* the same name combined with different adjectives, than the same adjectives combined with different names. These are classed as *adjectives of color*, (section 2,) and *adjectives of form and dimension*, (section 3,) and these are in sundry lessons, to be indefinitely extended by the teacher in the school-room, combined with the *singular* of nouns marked by the article *a* or *an*, and with the *plural*, marked by its appropriate termination.

The rules for the plural in our language are few and simple; and the irregular plurals in common use present so small a burden to the memory that it has been judged best to teach the commonly recurring forms of these while we are on the subject. To defer to a later period the plural of such common words as *baby*, *ox*, *foot*, *sheep*, would either involve the necessity of making continual corrections, or of allowing the pupil to acquire the habit of using such words erroneously. It is better to give the pupil at once the few exceptions to the general rule in common use. He can then go on with confidence to apply his general rule in all other cases he is likely to meet with. In fact, the irregular plurals present no greater difficulty than the regular, except in requiring a greater effort of the memory. The real difficulty, or stop of ascent in the language gained, is making the pupil bear in mind that we use a different form of the word when more than one object of the same kind is spoken of.

The principle of the remark just made will apply to other cases. The *real* difficulties of language to the deaf and dumb are those forms and idioms to which there is nothing corresponding in their own natural dialect in gestures. That we should use three words to denote, "*Many fat oxen*," or "*two fine horses*," or five words to say, "*Mary bought three loaves yesterday*," or six to say, "*Peter killed two snakes last summer*," will appear quite natural and reasonable to a deaf mute who uses, in these cases at least, just as many signs as there are words. The order of the words will present some difficulty, indeed, and it will require considerable practice to habituate him to place them in our order. But still stranger to him will appear the change of form of the words *horse*, *ox*, *loaf*, and *snake* to denote more than one; and of the verbs *buy* and *kill* to denote past time. Let it, however, be once fixed in his mind that such a change must be made, and the only difficulty of the irregular terminations is that they are less easily remembered than the regular ones. To lessen this last difficulty, after allowing sufficient time and practice for the regular termination to become familiar, the most common words of irregular termination should be introduced, classified as far as possible, and well impressed on the memory by dint of repetition. These remarks are repeated from a paper read at the second convention, because the early teaching of the irregular inflections of words has been objected to as if it presented not merely an exercise of the memory, but a serious difficulty of apprehension.

Other matters are introduced before coming to the finite verb, as well to lend interest and variety to the lessons and favor the development of the pupil's faculties, as to collect materials from which sentences are hereafter to be formed. We teach him to count, (with objects of course) as far as 31, that number being necessary to give the day of the month, in writing dates; we introduce two or three verbs in the imperative, as *bring*, *lift*, *strike*; we vary the lessons by the use of the *indefinite* pronouns *some* and *many*, instead of definite numbers; in contrast with the *indefinites* *a* and *some*, we introduce the *definite* pronouns *that* and *those*; we teach the pupil to comprehend and respond to the interrogations, *How*

*many?* and we test his intellectual powers in making the most easy and obvious classification of objects, as *things* without life, *animals* having life, and *persons* of the human race. Experience has shown that with many deaf-mutes this last exercise is very interesting, for it is natural to take pleasure in exercising new-found powers, whether mental or physical. We give them some practice, also, in mental arithmetic, a study which cannot be begun too early; and teach them the days of the week and month by requiring each to write the date every morning at the head of his slate. Their notions of time must be enlarged and corrected before we can profitably teach the distinction of tenses.

In the meantime their vocabulary of names is enlarging as fast as they can be thoroughly committed to memory, and in section VI a few additional adjectives are introduced, some of them expressing qualities which cannot easily be illustrated by cuts, as "*a good watch*," "*a bad watch*," but which by this time the pupil has learned to distinguish and express by signs. One of the lessons in this section, lesson 51, is devoted to impressing on the memory, by a repetition of examples, the law of precedence between two adjectives before a noun, as "*A large white horse*," or "*A little yellow bird*," not a white large horse, or a yellow little bird.

Thus it will be seen that though in the course of the first fifty-five lessons, occupying, with a class of fair capacity, and a teacher of tact and experience, from three to four months, no complete sentences have been introduced, and only about a half dozen verbs in the imperative form, directing actions that can be conveniently performed in the class, (as *bring, lift, &c.*) still much more has been done than merely causing the pupil to commit to memory a dry list of words. He has learned that certain words represent objects, that certain other words, joined to these, mark differences of color, form, quality, and the words thus joined together still denote but one object. He has learned to count, to reckon time, to exercise his faculties in classifying objects, to perceive the value of one written form of interrogation, to know that some phrases, composed of several words in a certain order, denote, according to the terminations of the last word, a single object or a group of objects. And in teaching all this, care has been taken to preserve clearness and precision of ideas. Words have now become for the pupil familiar and manageable things. His faculties have become developed by conversations in signs with his teacher and his schoolmates. His ideas have become clearer; his memory and his powers of discrimination have been strengthened by daily exercise during several months; and he is now competent to advance with somewhat larger strides, and to scale somewhat steeper ascents.

Yet we still adhere to our principle of dividing and graduating difficulties. The participle forms an easy connecting link between the adjective and the verb. It accurately describes the pictures or real scenes by which the first verbs are illustrated. We therefore introduce verbs first in the form of the participle, "*A boy standing*," "*A girl dancing*," &c.

The propriety of beginning with the participle is further shown when we come to the next step. To illustrate a verb by a picture or a living example, we need a tense strictly present. The tense usually called the *present* is not in our language, such a tense. It is, perhaps, fortunate for our pupils that the most simple in idea of our tenses separates the assertion and the action. *John is walking*. *Peter is not walking*. *Peter is standing*.

This form being well impressed in the pupil's mind by repetition, we endeavor to make clear to him the important distinction between the two present tenses, a distinction which we have known deaf-mutes educated in a desultory method to labor with for years without ever compre-

hending it. We first introduce the habitual present in connection with the adverbs *sometimes* or *often*, and contrast it with the actual present. We thus endeavor to impress in the pupil's mind that the latter is applied to actions going on at the moment, *Mary is writing*, and that the former implies a habit or custom of performing the action. *Mary dances sometimes*. *She is not dancing now*. These forms mark an important as well as simple and obvious distinction. A clear apprehension of it will greatly promote the correctness with which the pupil will compose sentences of his own.

Here then is room for the teacher to spread out his school-room exercises in many series of sentences, which to deaf mutes will have something of the charm which nursery rhymes have to children who hear, yet which shall be strictly rational. Let all the natural or characteristic actions of a boy, a girl, a man, a woman, a horse, a bird, &c., be described in series of simple sentences, to which the pupils shall be encouraged to make additions from their own mental stores, *e. g.*: A girl sews sometimes. A girl dances sometimes. A girl runs sometimes. A girl plays sometimes. A girl talks sometimes. A girl works sometimes. A girl writes sometimes. A girl reads sometimes. A girl smiles sometimes. A girl weeps sometimes, &c.

These are then connected together by omitting the recurring adverb. A girl sews. A girl dances. A girl runs. A girl plays, &c. In this way collections of short sentences can be made at an early stage of the course, which for our deaf-mute pupils will have all the interest of "connected language."

It would be an unnecessary labor to follow this exposition further. I have said enough, I trust, to show that the order of the lessons was not decided on without careful consideration, and that there were reasons in each case for the choice.

It occurs to me here to observe as a matter of much practical importance, not indeed referring to the order of the lessons, but to the manner of teaching, that the teacher ought to endeavor, as much as practicable, to lend life and reality to his lessons in language, by making his pupils write sentences, or little compositions descriptive of objects, or pictures placed before them, or of actions performed, or scenes acted in their presence. You have all probably heard of the German man of science, who seeing a public exhibition of some pupils taught after the method of de l'Épée, proposed to test their powers of independent composition by making them describe an action performed by himself. The pupils, accustomed only to write from the dictation of signs, failed in this novel test.

They should be practiced also in writing out stories communicated to them in pantomime, which, if skilfully made, will call up before them the scenes of life with almost the vividness of reality. All experienced teachers know that it is a much better mental exercise, and a far better test of skill in the use of language, to have the pupils write out a story from a natural pantomime, than from signs in the order of the words.

While the order of lessons which I adopted appeared to me, after careful study, to be the best, I wish it to be distinctly understood that I am sensible it might be improved in several respects, and I would further say that I am far from disapproving the introduction of words, or even occasionally of difficulties of construction, in advance of their order in the book, when they are needed to enable the pupil to express correctly in words some interesting incident that may break the general monotony of school life, especially in writing letters to his friends, or to prepare him with a stock of questions and answers for his vacation. A course of

instruction for deaf-mutes should be regarded as furnishing aids and not fetters to a judicious teacher.

And, finally, I would repeat, as of prime importance, the maxim to *review, REVIEW, REVIEW*, every lesson. That a little book well studied is better than a library skimmed over and forgotten, is as true as it is that a little farm well tilled is more profitable than a large one only scratched over.

This paper was followed by one written by M. L. Brock, one of the instructors in the Illinois institution. The paper was read by Mr. Gillett, who, in presenting it, stated that it was originally prepared for and read before a meeting of the teachers of their institution, and not designed to have a wider publicity, but that he had prevailed upon Mr. Brock to permit him to bring it to this meeting. It was entitled—

#### A BETTER METHOD OF INSTRUCTING A CLASS OF BEGINNERS.

As each autumn returns our institution receives a large number of new pupils. The older members of the school call them the ignorant class, a name certainly not inappropriate when we consider their position as intellectual beings. They are very ignorant. They live in the lowest and darkest valleys surrounding that "hill of science" up whose sides we propose to conduct them.

Now, that we may enter upon this, most emphatically, up-hill work of their instruction, with any reasonable hope of success, we must first inquire into their condition, and see what foundation there is upon which to build. We must also try to find out what they know, and then determine how this knowledge already possessed may be best used in imparting more.

They are brought to us at various ages, ranging from eight to twenty years. We must not suppose that their minds have remained dormant up to the time of their coming to school. There is only one thing wanting to make many of them as bright as any children in the land: that one thing is language. The rude, self-acquired gesture language which they use in making known their wants, limits their conversation to a very small number of topics, and even upon these they may entertain very incorrect views. Whether they can think and form ideas respecting matters upon which they cannot converse, is a question too metaphysical to be discussed in a paper of this kind.

Their powers of observation are generally very acute; developed, perhaps, more than in speaking children. When examining some object which awakens their interest, they often manifest great curiosity as to the uses of those minor parts, which would escape the notice of more educated persons. This faculty in the mutes of seeing and noting everything is almost, if not quite, equalled by their aptness in imitating forms. But this may be considered the result of constant practice. Even the signs which they use in talking consist merely of copies of motions and shapes. All that they learn up to the time of entering the institution is from imitation. Their very ideas are borrowed from surrounding objects, and stored away by memory, to be called up whenever occasion may demand.

If they ever link their thoughts together so as to reason, either from cause to effect or from effects back to causes, the process is so strange and unnatural as to be as incomprehensible to us as the instinct of the brutes. A speaking child, by associating with intelligent persons, will, without effort, imitate their modes of thinking as much as their methods of acting. In fact one of the results of education seems to be to produce

in different minds the same kind of channels for the flowing of ideas. Give two men similar premises and we expect them to come to similar conclusions. Two persons with cultivated minds may be engaged in conversation; a pause of a moment may occur, and then one of them begin talking on an entirely different theme; yet, if it be not suggested by some outward object, his companion can almost invariably replace the missing links and discover the connection between the two subjects. But the reasoning of the uneducated deaf-mute, whatever his methods may be, is not to be judged by the rules which belong to a higher education, and, consequently, forms no fulcrum upon which his teacher may place a lever to move the mind. He is prevented by his infirmity from hearing people talk; does not understand their mental operations and therefore cannot imitate them. His ideas seem to come at random and often without any connection, while his mind is as destitute of channels as a level floor. This is proved in the letters of some of the older pupils, in which their parents are informed, about every fourth sentence, that they are expected to "write a letter soon." The intervening sentences are usually to the effect, that "Dr. Gillett is principal of this institution." "All the pupils are well; but some boys and girls are sick," and "all the pupils will go home in June." All very interesting information so far as it goes, but becoming rather stale by being repeated too often in the same letter. So far as we can see, the whole production is merely an effort of the memory. We may then safely put down the following three points as a foundation on which the first part of a deaf-mute's education must be built: First, an acute observation; second, great aptitude for imitating forms; and third, a retentive memory. Upon these the teacher must begin operating; bearing in mind, however, that his work for the present is to teach language; to train those under his care to express themselves in writing instead of signs. How this can be best accomplished so as to save time and promote accuracy is the all-important question.

By reference to the last report of this institution we find that the principal has stated: "The art of teaching the deaf and dumb is yet in its infancy; and the best methods of their instruction are still matters of controversy, and will probably so remain for years to come." This is undoubtedly true; controversy will only cease when perfection is attained. Perfection can only be arrived at through long and patient experiment. It is encouraging, however, to know that the results of these investigations are not limited to the unfortunate. They extend to the cause of education at large. It is a fact capable of proof that some of the most improved methods of teaching employed in our common schools have been evolved in institutions for the deaf and dumb. And such men as Dr. Peet, Mr. Jacobs, and others who have labored so zealously and efficiently in this field, deserve not only the thanks of the mute, but the nation's gratitude. For if an enlightened, Christian philanthropy no longer demanded the establishment and support of these institutions, even then the State would suffer loss by having them swept away. We have to deal with mind in a very crude condition; are compelled to develop the most natural methods of presenting truth, consequently our modes of teaching are found to be among the best for all classes of children. If there be instructors, who do these things better than we, they will be found—not in our colleges, with their traditional forms and blind attachment to old ideas, where art has smothered nature and languages already dead are again murdered, but seldom mastered, by being studied backwards—but they will be found laboring with a still lower

grade of intellect in those recently founded schools for the education of idiots.

In the absence of revelation, man can find no better guide than nature. This is especially true in matters pertaining to education. The teacher must endeavor to find the most natural methods of imparting instruction, resting assured that they are the best. Just in the proportion that he fails of finding these will he fail of success. This then must be the object ever kept in view by one who takes a class of beginners. He needs very few artificial aids. Some pictures of well known objects, and the school room furniture are all the books required. No child, whether speaking or mute, can understand the use of a letter, consequently no time ought to be lost in trying to teach the alphabet. With speaking children, just learning to read, the word method may be the best, because they use words in talking. It is the natural process, by which they impart and receive ideas. But words and letters are alike mysteries to the mute. His signs represent ideas complete in themselves, not elementary parts and sounds. The first thing then to be placed before the class should be a full, simple sentence. It should be the written expression for some very familiar occurrence, and one which they can easily render into signs. They should be requested to write it on the slate immediately. The mind must understand the expression, the eye take in the shape, the hand, not the tongue, must imitate, and the memory must retain it.

This will seem to be a work too difficult for young minds; yet it is neither so laborious or unnatural as the old dull operation of first mastering the alphabet. It has been proved by experiment in this institution that a class will learn twenty-six sentences more easily than twenty-six letters.

Mr. Jacobs, in "The Synopsis of Primary Lessons for the Deaf and Dumb," given in the proceedings of the fifth convention, says "it is quite sufficient to teach him (the mute) the small letter only; he will acquire the capitals as he progresses without any labor." This is a step in the right direction, but let us go further. Let us teach him sentences and he will then learn the use of both letters and words.

The sentence is the normal condition of language. The most simple idea formed in the chambers of the brain, when dressed for expression, will be found wearing at least the subject and predicate, and most generally the object.

Now the sign language, in its most improved state, is very elliptical, so much so, indeed, that a literal translation into English will not make even respectable nonsense. This is the case to a much greater extent in the rude pantomime used by our pupils on first entering school, consequently to judge of their mental operations by any such close interpretations would be very unjust. Full sentences must be the representatives of their ideas.

I once had occasion to ask a group of boys who were standing idle when they ought to have been at work, what employment had been assigned them. They all very readily gave the desired information, except one who was a recent arrival. He, after some hesitation, made the shape of a horn with a motion of hooking. His true meaning, which could only be arrived at in connection with the question asked and answers given by the others, was, "I take care of the cattle." If I had them made the same gestures, written out the sentence, and had him copy it a few times, he would thenceforth have been able to tell in writing what his employment was out of school hours. And he would have understood the true import of the sentence as a whole, though he had



been at school only a few days and knew but very few letters of the alphabet. This, however, is an exceptional instance. Their language is not usually so meager. What I wish to show by this is that the teacher must go to the pupils for ideas; must find out what they mean by their motions and then give them the same meaning expressed in the very best of written English. If possible, have them communicating with each other in writing the very first day at school. This can only be accomplished by having them translate their own signs. If we would pay more attention to this mode of conversation, introduce it early and rigidly adhere to it throughout the course, we would not be so chagrined by having a large proportion of our pupils leave the institution incapable of correctly using the idioms of our language.

I am aware that there may be objections urged to the sentence method of teaching. One of the first will be that it introduces all the parts of speech immediately, and will produce confusion in the mind of the learner. But this objection is founded on an error. The child has no business to meddle with the "parts of speech" or anything else as taught in our common school grammars. If his idea require the pronoun *me* in his first sentence, let him have it. Is it not to him, as to each one of us, the most important word in the English language? Is it not one of the first sounds intelligibly uttered by the young prattler? Nothing can be more unnatural than the old plan of dividing words into classes and then teaching them separately. Grammar was made to fit language and not language for grammar.

This fondness, which we all more or less manifest, for what is in direct opposition to every rule of common sense, is the result not of investigation but of filial attachment to the old high school and college curriculum; where we studied first the grammar, then the vocabulary, followed by translating into English, and lastly the forming of Greek and Latin sentences. And though many of us left our *alma maters* after from four to six years' hard study, innocent of having mastered these languages, yet we deem any departure from the time-honored regime a flagrant violation of the fifth commandment, and likely to be followed by a cutting short of our influence.

Another objection to this method will be that it requires the teacher to be thoroughly acquainted with the sign language, so that he may be able to translate the crude signs of his pupils; whereas it has been found necessary to have about half the beginning classes taught by beginning teachers, who know as little of the meaning of these wild gesticulations as their pupils do of written characters. Now if this method will only succeed in breaking up this pernicious practice, it will have accomplished a vast amount of good for the unfortunate children of silence. The position of instructor of the beginning classes should be considered, as it really is, the post of honor in our institutions. To that work should be assigned the best talent and largest experience contained in the faculty. The common error just at this point has contributed largely to the failures which disgrace our schools. The first impressions made upon the minds of these children are the most lasting. And no teacher who has been engaged in this profession for any considerable length of time has failed to realize that mistakes, either learned or allowed to go uncorrected during the first year, are the most difficult to eradicate. Our novitiates, who come fresh from academies and colleges, should be assigned more advanced classes, where the mode of instruction is more like that of our common schools and where the fewer signs used the better.

But after all, the main objection will be that the sentence is too heavy, and if the pupils do learn it, it will only be as the parrot learns to talk.

The best refutation that I can give to this is to relate a little of my own experience. A few years ago, after having graduated my class in June, at the commencement of the term I was permitted to take charge of the beginning class for a few weeks, until the school should be reorganized. I still retained great reverence for the old methods of instruction. Letters, thought I, are the foundation of written language, therefore it is evident that letters must be first learned. I, however, determined not to spend time in trying to master the whole of the alphabet, but wished to pass to words and then to sentences as rapidly as possible. Acting on this idea, the first thing I did on entering the school-room, the morning of the first day, was to playfully make a dash at a little fellow's face and triumphantly bear off his nose, represented by my thumb between the first and second fingers. The example was contagious. Every boy became suddenly enamored of his neighbor's nose. They had learned that movement at home. It was an old play. But that is our sign for the letter *t*, so they wrote *t*, as I did, on the large slates, and never forgot it; though they never knew what it meant. While I kept the class I could never write that letter without some boy trying to take some other boy's nose. And I suppose, that for as much as a year, the members of that class thought it was the written expression for pulling the nose. The next thing I did was to make the sign for the letter *c*, have them make it and write it; but *c* was hard to learn. There was no interesting association to attract attention and aid the memory. The letter *a* was equally unintelligible, but finally mastered. By the close of the first day the whole class could write the word *cat*, make the sign for the animal, and know what it meant, at least when aided by a large picture.

On coming together the next morning, I examined my lot of pictures with a view to finding some animal whose appearance should be as familiar as that of the cat, and whose name should contain nearly the same letters. The rat filled these conditions. Only one new letter to learn. That was considered thoroughly mastered after a siege of about two hours. Then the picture of the rat was placed along with that of the cat on the frame of the large slate; the first at the right-hand corner, the latter at the left, and in such a way as to be looking at her intended victim. No sooner was this arrangement made than one little fellow said, in very expressive signs, that the cat would eat the rat. It was something that he had often seen occur. Here, then, was the verb we wanted. We soon learned the new letters, *e* and *s*, and then I wrote out the full sentence, "A cat eats a rat." This closed the second day. Next morning, on review, I found that the whole class would write out the sentence from signs more readily than any word or letter, except *t*, which helped to compose it. Their countenances showed that they understood the expression. They could write it to each other, and then make signs for it. They seemed to realize that their method of communication by gestures was not the only one, after all, which they could use, but that those white characters on the board meant something very much like talking. They did, however, take a greater interest in the letter *t* than they did in the full sentence. But this resulted from the fact that they, like many older persons, were glad of any excuse which would allow them to pull a neighbor's nose.

I then had the satisfaction of seeing that my improved method, for an improvement on the old it certainly was, amounted to relatively nothing. It was about as sensible as if one should try to aid a boy's comprehension of the shape and uses of a house, by first whipping him with a shingle and then showing him a brick and a nail. It would not be surprising if he should receive an incorrect impression as to the use of the shingle,

while the brick and the nail would, in all probability, suggest nothing to his mind. How much more reasonable to let him examine a house as a whole, furnished and complete, and there learn the use of the materials employed in its construction. This he would easily do, requiring but little if any assistance. Then he would retain in his mind the shape of the house with its windows, doors, and chimneys more easily than the form of any of its unattractive parts. But if permitted to examine many buildings, his attention would be awakened to the uses of these parts, by seeing them occupy different positions in different structures. In like manner it was far better to give the learner sentences containing interesting ideas, and let him there learn the uses and meaning of words and letters, than to cause in him a disgust and hatred for schools and learning by compelling him to con over a lot of dry, unintelligible elementary characters. It is a cruel mercy which administers language to young minds in homœopathic doses.

The eye can see a full sentence just as easily as one word or one letter. If that sentence be the expression for some familiar idea, the mind can more easily comprehend it than any of its separate parts, and of course whatever is best understood is most easily remembered.

It requires the education and scientific knowledge of our best naturalists to take a tooth, and from that determine the shape, size, and habits of the animal to which it belonged, though a man of very ordinary attainments can decide what kind of teeth ought to be in the jaw when he sees the animal engaged in eating. The synthetic is the most unnatural of all processes of reasoning, yet it is the one by which too many teachers expect children to acquire language. Against this tyranny the pupil may not rebel. He may prefer nature to art, but must not set up his wishes against the superior wisdom of his instructors. The right to show a distaste for things not understood is granted only to infants, and even they are often driven to half-way submission. I suppose every one has noticed how stupidly and carelessly a child just learning to talk will follow a person through every word of a sentence and only seem to grasp the idea when the last word is repeated. Then the countenance will brighten, and perhaps he will repeat the sentence over two or three times very rapidly and with surprising energy. This shows that children like to say what they understand, and so will deaf-mutes find a pleasure in writing a sentence the meaning of which they fully comprehend. They are not, however, going to be satisfied with the dry bones of language thrown to them one at a time. I know that it is often stated that the acquired power of writing the names of objects is to a deaf and dumb child a source of great joy—it opens to his mind a new world. This is true to some extent. At first it is novel; but he soon becomes tired of almost every name but his own; that has such an intimate connection with himself that it cannot grow old. If the others be not made to form new and entertaining combinations they will soon lose their interest. There must be some action among them, and verbs are to be called to their aid.

Children's minds prefer the concrete to the abstract. And in this they only resemble the older members of the human family. We all find pleasure in looking at a cage with a bird in it; though we should feel considerable disgust at any one who should expect us to go into ecstasies over a stray feather or a bit of wire.

Were I now called upon to take a new class, I would not begin with *t* or with *cat*. If I wished to use the sentence before referred to, I should take the two animals to the school-room and have the eating operation performed in the presence of the pupils. I should watch for their signs,

and then give them the same idea in writing. I should make sure that they understood the written expression; this should be done in such a way as to make a deep impression on their minds. Then, when sent to the board, their interest would not allow them to be content with copying the sentence once; but they would write it again and again of their own accord. And it would not be long before that interesting piece of information would be heralded abroad, by being represented in large letters on every out-building surrounding the institution. It would never be forgotten. The great cause of forgetfulness is a want of interest at the time of learning the lesson. We complain of evanescent impressions when in fact there were no impressions made. To a new class who do not know why they come to school or why they should try to acquire an education, the teacher must supply the incentive. The mode of doing this is not a subject for rules. It must be the outgrowth of his own common sense and ingenuity. To borrow a figure from the printing office; if interest be made to ink the dull form of the lesson, the impression on memory's sheet will be lasting. But if the instructor fail to impart this he must not be astonished if he find no impression made.

A child when learning to sing, is encouraged to warble the simple air fitted to words, the sentiment of which very much increases the pleasure to be derived from the exercise. If this ornamental branch of his education is to be improved, vocalizing cadenzas and trills are introduced; but not until he can comprehend the benefits to be derived from such training. Suppose he should be compelled to spend his precious play-time in learning the names of notes, running the gamut and producing only the elementary sounds, would it not result in developing a distaste for music?

Now shape is to the eye of the mute what sound is to the open ear. And upon his acquirement of written language must depend both his happiness and usefulness; consequently no effort should be spared to so present this to his mind that his interest may never pall while in the pursuit. This can only be best accomplished by having him practice giving expression to the operations of his own mind. The written characters are thus made to assume a personal relation to himself. They are the clothing of his own ideas, and his parental regard will induce him to see to it that every part occupies its proper place. His eye will soon learn to detect an error either in the position or spelling of a word as easily as the ear discovers a discord. And by this means he will become thoroughly acquainted with the shapes and meaning of words; and eventually with the signs for, and offices performed by, every letter in the alphabet.

Perfection, however, is not claimed for this method. It is only asserted to be superior to the old system of instruction, in which the pupil began by learning the alphabet, followed by a long vocabulary of nouns and adjectives, then verbs, and when, at last, he was called upon to write a sentence it was not his own, but was either given by the teacher or taken from a book. This superiority claimed consists in its being more natural. It will certainly tend to do away with that constant complaint of every instructor of deaf-mutes, "my pupils won't think." And may we not hope that it will also remove the cause of that mortification which we so often feel as we see many of our pupils taking final leave of the school, and yet incapable of keeping up a conversation in correctly written language.

Mr. I. L. Peet remarked that, in opening the discussion, he would give expression to the thoughts that occurred at first, without the opportu-

nity of arranging his remarks systematically. He would feel reluctance in discarding hastily old methods. He believed that the labors of the older teachers had led to right results because their methods were philosophical and wise. He had been much interested in the paper last presented, and thought there were many valuable suggestions that could be followed by instructors. He was delighted with the zeal and enthusiasm of the writer of the paper, and was sure, from the illustrations given of his method of dealing with a class, that he was a successful teacher. Still, he would join issue with the idea that teaching sentences at first was the natural method. He found that children beginning to talk used single words, instancing his own child just beginning to say "papa," rather than sentences, and he would expect the deaf and dumb to begin to learn in the same way. While an educated man, in acquiring a new language, might plunge *in medias res*, the young pupil should and must first gain the names of familiar objects, and from this vocabulary build up his knowledge of written language by regular additions. He believed the method recommended by the president in his elementary lessons and the paper read this morning to be the true one. While this method, so far, might be imperfectly developed, he believed we might take this as a basis, and standing on the shoulders of those who had gone before us, and improving upon their work, might carry forward the system to perfection. Taking this as the system, the teacher might, as accessory or incidental, introduce many colloquial expressions that would be of great assistance to the pupils.

Rev. W. W. Turner said there was an old proverb that "truth lies at the bottom of the well." The question is, how to get it out, and make it available. He thought there was truth in both papers, and the question to be considered was, which has the most truth? In the answer to this question much depends on the pupils to be taught. He instanced the case of two of the first pupils taught by Rev. Dr. Gallaudet. In the case of one he should have used the plan proposed in the first paper, while in the other, who was possessed of a lively fancy, he should have preferred the method proposed in the paper read by Mr. Gillett. In a class of deaf and dumb, we find the talents of the pupils to be quite various, and therefore he would recommend that both methods be blended. Let pupils be taught part of the day from the book and part according to the new method. He had used the vocabulary prepared by Dr. Gallaudet, beginning with simple words, but soon introduced short sentences.

He thought, however, that the case stated by Mr. Peet was not parallel. The infant at seven months can say "papa," but has no idea of its meaning; while the pupils, as they come to the institutions, have clear ideas and only need the words to express them. The plan of Dr. Peet's should not be discarded; the precision and method of that should be combined with the interest and rapidity of the other.

President Gallaudet, without underrating the methods advocated in the elementary lessons of Dr. Peet and the paper presented by him, would add a few words with regard to the other method recommended, because he believed that had been too much neglected. He had had, recently, practical illustration of the value of the method of learning by sentences. His attention had been more fully directed to this method by a treatise written on the mastery of language by Mr. Thomas Prendergast. This treatise starts out with a refutation of the idea that children can master language more easily than adults, and advocates learning foreign languages by sentences, as children learn to talk. He would agree with Mr. Turner that the teaching of an infant with its few

crude notions and indistinct impressions would differ much from the teaching of an adult or even the deaf-mute with his observations somewhat developed, and would advocate a different process for the latter class than for the former. A child going from this country to France or Germany would begin with sentences and not with single words, and as a child would so become a master of a foreign language, so he believed by a similar process deaf-mutes could be put in the way of mastering language. He had had occasion, during his recent visit in Europe, to put in practice the method suggested by Mr. Prendergast, and had been so convinced of the benefit of that system, that he would recommend all instructors of deaf-mutes to examine these treatises, feeling sure that they would gather from them valuable suggestions.

Professor Porter regarded it important to have a systematic course of instruction and to advance the pupils step by step, more or less in a grammatical order. He called attention to the effort made by Mr. Keep to combine both methods in his book, and thought the result of experiment made with that book would decide its practicability. He gave examples from Mr. Keep's book and thought his method should have a fair trial. He would object to the method of Dr. Peet, that it introduced too many general sentences at the first.

Mr. Bangs had given much attention to this subject in considering the best method of starting the new classes in the institution under his charge. He had employed Dr. Peet's elementary lessons with some modifications. He would introduce earlier, than is done in those lessons, some few comprehensive terms that would enable the pupils to make direct assertions. By means of the early introduction of the pronoun "some," he had put the pupils in possession of a term by which direct and correct assertion could be made. This he illustrated by several examples.

Rev. Thomas Gallaudet said that one advantage of the conference was the giving utterance to practical thoughts. From the general tenor of the discussion it seemed that it was expedient to have instruction in sentences given in connection with systematic grammatical training; he asked the principals present to experiment on this sentence-teaching, whether it should be trusted to the teacher without books, giving out sentences by writing or spelling in the manual alphabet according to the daily wants and experience of the pupils, or whether this sentence-teaching should be laid down regularly in books. He asked that other experiments should be instituted in the way of making language a living thing to the deaf and dumb, as to general exercises for all the pupils in the chapel, or having classes passed from one teacher to another in recitation rooms connected with a general study room.

Mr. Stone was interested in both papers. He had followed the plan recommended by the president, and believed that we should teach language systematically from beginning to end, and that the grammatical relations of words should be borne in mind and be the basis of instruction. The principle of construction must be taught, or there would be confusion of time and other relations.

Mr. I. L. Peet remarked that he had held the idea of general instruction proposed by Dr. Gallaudet as a favorite one, and that it had been put in practice in the New York institution.

Mr. Talbot said that Mr. Brown, while at the head of the Louisiana institution, had followed the plan of giving general instruction in language.

Mr. McIntire felt that great progress had been made since the publication of the "Elementary Lessons" by Dr. Peet. He had sometimes

found that teachers, by depending too much upon the elementary lessons, had fallen behind others who depended more upon their own resources; but he believed if a teacher would follow the method recommended by those lessons, and supplement this by his own suggestions and illustrations greater progress would be made than by any other process.

Mr. P. G. Gillett stated that the method proposed in Mr. Brock's paper had been tested in the Illinois institution and with good results. It had been found that the interest of the pupil could more easily be aroused and retained. While there were advantages for some minds in the method advocated by Dr. Peet, and which had been so long in use, his observation would lead him to avail himself of this more natural method, believing that pupils would advance more rapidly and with fewer peculiarities of expression.

Mr. McIntire moved that the subject be laid on the table and that the conference accept the invitation received from Dr. C. H. Nichols to visit the Government Insane Asylum this afternoon, and for that purpose do now (12 o'clock) adjourn to 9 o'clock to-morrow morning.

The afternoon and evening were spent by the members of the conference in visiting the Capitol and the Insane Asylum. At the latter place they were received with great courtesy by Dr. Nichols and his assistants, and were afforded every facility for examining the arrangement of that large and admirably planned institution. They returned to the Columbia Institution at a late hour, after enjoying a musical entertainment and bountiful supper provided for them by Dr. Nichols.

#### THURSDAY MORNING.

Conference met according to adjournment in the college chapel. The Scripture reading and prayer were conducted by I. L. Peet. Minutes of the preceding meeting were read and approved.

The committee of arrangements, through their chairman, made the following report:

"The committee of arrangements recommend for consideration of the conference the following papers:

"*Thursday morning*.—1. Discipline, by P. G. Gillett. 2. Proper age for admission, by B. Talbot. 3. American system of deaf and dumb instruction, by E. M. Gallaudet.

"*Thursday afternoon*.—4. Mechanical education of the deaf and dumb, by W. J. Palmer. 5. Best way of teaching grammar, by S. Porter.

"*Friday morning*.—6. Hereditary deafness, by W. W. Turner. 7. Initial signs, by I. L. Peet. 8. The college, and its relations to the institutions, by L. Pratt.

"*Friday afternoon*.—9. Articulation, by J. H. Woods. 10. Ladies as teachers, by Miss C. Trask.

"The committee also announce that arrangements have been made to have a photograph of the members of the conference taken immediately after dinner to-day; and that an exhibition will be given this evening by the students of the college, to which all are invited."

The report was accepted.

Mr. Turner moved that the discussion of the papers read on Wednesday be resumed. This being agreed to, he remarked that in the discussion of Wednesday, the idea was conveyed that in the teaching of grammatical forms there would be more system and regularity, and that the teaching of sentences would be necessarily desultory and quickly forgotten. This idea he regarded as erroneous and by illustration showed that there could be progressive and systematic instruction given in the

practice of sentence teaching. He also dwelt upon the necessity of repetition and the method of teaching by grammatical signs, in giving lessons, and recommended that these be employed in the institutions generally.

Mr. McIntire said that while it would be interesting to continue this discussion, it was to be considered that a large number of papers were to be submitted to the conference, each of which would require time, and he therefore moved that a committee of three be appointed to prepare and report a minute expressive of the views of the conference upon the subject of the two papers read yesterday. He thought it would be well that such topics be thus considered by a committee, and that the conclusions reached in debate be made a matter of record, so that they may be easily understood by those of the profession not present, and be conveniently referred to by ourselves in the future.

Mr. GILLET. I understand the object and effect of this motion to be to settle a principle by which the conference will be governed throughout its sessions—the question being whether we will now adopt the principle of appointing committees to report the sense of the conference, and thus shut off debate. I have serious doubts whether it will be prudent for this conference to express its opinion authoritatively on the various subjects that may be brought before it. Gentlemen can express their views, and each adopt such as to him appear most judicious and philosophical; but, for one, I desire not to be trammelled by authoritative declarations of this conference in such enterprises as the future may call for in my field of labor.

Mr. TURNER. If we cannot settle some important principles, I think we shall not accomplish the object for which we have come together. We must agree as well as we can on some important questions, if we can agree; but if not, there is no use in trying. I think we should express our views on those points in regard to which there is an almost unanimous agreement among the men who are at the head of these institutions, although that will not bind anybody.

Mr. E. M. GALLAUDET. I should regret to differ from my honored friend from Indiana in regard to the appointment of this committee; but I fear that if we undertake in all cases to refer matters to committees after having discussed them, and then they report, and we again discuss, we shall be utterly unable to give attention, not to speak of arriving at conclusions, to subjects which are before the conference, whose titles have been presented. It is important to arrive at conclusions if we can. It is also important to have a full interchange of individual opinions on as many subjects as we can profitably discuss. It is to be hoped that this is not the last convention of principals, and that we may have many meetings of principals, and of principals and teachers, hereafter. We should avoid laying out too much for to-day and to-morrow, for we must close our session, probably, to-morrow evening, and we have many subjects to consider. I think the discussion has been profitable so far, and that the views presented have been received with a great degree of interest. I think we may as well act out our better judgment after the presentation of the papers. They will present matters which diverge but to converge again. I think we may take the papers and digest them, and let results flow from them, without undertaking to bring the conference down to an agreement on this point. With all deference to my friend, I feel constrained to oppose the appointment of this committee. I would rather consider that we have sufficiently discussed this subject, and would therefore move that the conference listen to the paper on discipline, by Mr. Gillett of Illinois.



Mr. MACINTIRE. The object of the resolution, I presume, is to get the judgment of the conference on the subject discussed in these papers. The subject of the best method of instructing beginners is of vital interest, and ought not to be passed over lightly. There are two papers in which are presented views radically different. Now, it does seem to me if this conference has any proper office to perform, it is to decide disputed questions like this. Discussion which stops short of conclusions, however earnest or eloquent, is mere wrangling, and is profitless. But it is said, leave each one to draw his own conclusions. Individual opinion in a case like this, especially when supported by long experience, ought to have weight in influencing our choice of methods of instruction; but the decision of the conference with the most of us would be decisive. However long we may discuss these disputed questions, yet if we come to no decision in reference to them, we shall lose the chief benefit for which we come together. I am therefore in favor of appointing a committee to draft a minute expressive of the sense of the conference on the subject discussed in these papers; I think, also, that other important matters after discussion should be referred to committees. This is the usual course pursued in ecclesiastical bodies. When the report is brought in, it can be amended and discussed further if the conference has the time. I feel like calling for the question and having a vote on it—whether we shall pursue this course, or whether we shall have a desultory discussion on these subjects and not settle anything definitely.

Mr. GILLET. Suppose this conference declares its opinion on any question and the gentleman goes home to Indiana entirely disagreeing with the sense of the convention, will he be governed by the action of this conference? What power have we to enforce our sentiments in any State in the land, if the officers of any institution disagree with our opinion expressed by resolution of this conference?

Mr. MACINTIRE. I came here as a delegate from the Indiana Institute under the appointment of the trustees, and with the distinct object to get the judgment of the more experienced superintendents and managers of these institutions upon these great and practical questions which enter into the life of every institution in the country. A mistake here may be one that cannot be remedied in years. This is particularly the case in regard to the new institutions in the west. If the majority settle a principle, I take it home to my board of trustees and say: "This is the judgment of the conference." It will have more influence with them than the opinion of an individual. They can adopt or reject these conclusions, and as a matter of course they will be governed by them only so far as they see fit. We do not propose to enact laws, but to give recommendations. But I want this committee to bring in a proposition that will be voted upon here and get a decision, if possible, to use in the manner indicated.

Mr. STONE. I do not understand that the action of this conference has any special authority; but we come together to compare our views upon important points; and it seems to me desirable that we should, after we have compared these views, ascertain what is the judgment of the conference respecting them. There are some questions which are to come before us, upon which we must give an opinion; if we do not we have come together in vain. Whether this is a question of that kind or not, I do not know. But there are other questions upon which we must give a distinct opinion. We came together specifically for this purpose. I do not understand that any resolution we may pass here is to bind any gentleman or any institution. The question just discussed is an important one. We now decide this point, either, that on no question discussed will we express an opinion, or that we will do it on those which are

important enough to warrant it. I wish that it may go to a committee, and then we can adopt or reject the minute.

Mr. E. M. GALLAUDET. I would not be considered as objecting to the appointment of a committee if that seems desirable. I am aware that there are points on which we should express our opinion. I did not come to the conclusion that this was one on which we should express a formal opinion. If it is so considered I would not object to a committee; indeed, after hearing what has been said, my preference would rather be for the appointment of a committee.

The question was taken, and the appointment of a committee agreed to.

The president appointed as the committee, Messrs. McIntire, Gillett, and Turner.

Mr. Turner declined the appointment, and Mr. I. L. Peet was appointed in his place.

The next business in order was the reading of the third paper, by Mr. Gillett, of Illinois, on

#### DISCIPLINE.

Every well regulated organization, from a small family to a nation, must be governed by certain clearly defined and well understood principles. It is a matter relatively trivial how these principles are set forth, so that they are comprehended by all to be affected by them. Where only a score or two of individuals are united under one organization, a very few explicit regulations may answer all requirements; but after the number comes to be reckoned by hundreds, and the establishment to unite in itself a variety of departments, which must be adjusted to one another, there must be a code of rules and regulations more elaborate, both as to extent and definiteness. In either case, however, but especially in the latter, it would be impossible to prepare a statement coextensive with all the details of management.

The matter of discipline in an institution is one of so great importance, that failure in it involves failure in every department of the establishment. In approaching this subject at the present time, the writer is not influenced by any considerable success which he has attained during his comparatively limited experience of superintendence, but rather by the hope of drawing from those, who have grown venerable in the administration of institution affairs, the means by which their well known success has been achieved.

It is a trite remark that "order is the first law of Heaven." Until order has been secured, and system inaugurated in the school-room, and throughout an institution, all efforts looking to permanent beneficial results will be futile. That order and system may prevail, it is first of all necessary that each individual shall understand clearly his own position, and the relations which such position brings him to sustain to all others, and that he shall conform to the obligations growing out of such relations. There will at times arise honest differences of opinion respecting these obligations, in which event it is the province and duty of the superintendent to state his conception of them, and to decide what shall be the rule in the case. There are two important considerations why his view of the case should be the governing one.

##### I. His direct and personal responsibility.

The organization of a deaf and dumb institution is necessarily such that the superintendent is brought into much more intimate communication with parents and guardians of pupils than any other officer can be. To him they have confided their children and wards of tender years.

He emphatically stands "*in loco parentis*." With the oversight of the father he is expected to unite the tenderness of the mother. He is at once responsible for intellectual improvement, physical development, preservation of health, moral culture, and personal comfort. "The heart knoweth its own sorrow," but who among these superintendents does not recall occasions when the long pent up anguish of a tender parent's bosom would fain burst forth to an appreciating ear, having been touched by a ready and familiar sympathy with misfortune. Who of you, gentlemen, has not at times found himself the unwilling recipient of confidences hitherto inviolable. "Many and oft" have all of you been moved by the implicit trust delicately communicated not only in person but in letter. And when that saddest of all events in an institution, the death of a pupil, has taken place, how tenderly and yet how deeply have you been touched by the continued confidence of parents, even when they could not say "the will of the Lord be done."

II. The relation of the superintendent to the various departments of the institution is such that he is better prepared to exercise an intelligent judgment than any other person can. His position is analogous to and may be illustrated by one on the summit of a mountain, who has in full view the entire eminence and the relations of its various parts to one another, while one located on its side sees only that portion in his own immediate vicinity, and knows comparatively little of what occurs on the side opposite or even adjacent to him. It not unfrequently occurs that a certain line of policy seems very desirable for the increased efficiency of one department of an institution which would be wholly incompatible with the prosperity of another, and thus unconsciously persons engaged in each are urging totally different expedients. In the commendable energy of enterprising laborers neither would willingly yield to the other.

For these reasons the greatest good of the largest number, as well as quiet and harmony, require that there should be lodged in the executive head of every institution this authority, seemingly arbitrary, and absolute.

There are reasons above the convenience and satisfaction of present order for the enforcement of discipline. The impressibility of youthful character, and the permanence of early impressions, are subjects so common place that their mere mention will be sufficient for our present purpose. The highest object of all education is to develop the character of the future man. While the study of language, mathematics, and the sciences is the best means of cultivating mental acumen and of storing away knowledge for future use, the discipline to which one is subjected in tender years, and during the period of adolescence, is the most powerful of all influences conducive to the formation of moral character. To one of our pupils the institution is a miniature world. The characteristics established under our tutelage are those of the future man in the world's broader field of strife. Does he pass from our guardianship unstable, indolent, there is little hope that his future life will afford us much pleasure in reviewing our relations to him. Does he succeed by industry, studiousness, and system in making a respectable character for himself, the regimen of his earlier years will be acknowledged as the chief agency qualifying him for his later achievements. From this standpoint, should the executive officer of every institution designed for the care and culture of young persons take his first and principal survey of his responsibility, and by such considerations should he be governed in his administration of discipline. What is here stated of the principal is equally true of all subordinate officers in their respective spheres.

This remark suggests the thought, that it is a matter of prime importance in the government of an institution, that there should be, as nearly as possible, a perfect harmony of feeling and action between the head of an institution and his assistants, and also between those assistants themselves. It would be idle here to discuss the effect upon a body of pupils of the knowledge that officers of their institution were seeking to subvert each other, or that there was a want of co-operation between them which would lead one to overlook any dereliction of a pupil to a fellow officer. The unity here insisted upon is not to the extent of the surrender of individuality of sentiment or independence of opinion upon the part of any one, for one so devoid of stability of character as readily to yield honest convictions is unsuited for the direction of youthful minds. But, as in their physical systems no two men are formed physically alike, so in their mental characteristics men are so constituted that reflecting persons may very rarely, if ever, be reasonably expected to entertain precisely similar views. Hence differences of judgment and opinion must inevitably arise with more or less frequency. When so arising, it is now claimed, there should be a concession, not a surrender, of individual preferences to the extent that, to the view of all pupils and persons not co ordinates, there is but one mind, and, in fact, a perfect coincidence of effort. Nothing less than this can be at all compatible with good order and the successful advancement of the aims of an institution.

Consequently a regard for the welfare, both present and future, of the youth who are the wards of an institution will prompt an honorable and highminded officer to a ready acquiescence with these principles. When there is not such a conformity to them the authority of the superintendent must be exercised, as stated in a former part of this paper.

In the administration of discipline there should be uniformity. Not uniformity of method in all cases where coercive measures become necessary, but a constant and unremitting vigilance, which avoids a spasmodic straightening up of affairs, and running them with due order and propriety for a limited period, and then relaxing, suffers them to run at loose ends, growing worse and worse until they become absolutely unendurable. Such discipline, though not worse than none, is entitled to very little respect, and will exert relatively a pernicious influence upon an institution and the character of its inmates. It defeats its own purpose, and is far more difficult of enforcement than that which is steady and equitable. It presents to a bevy of youth, in the persons of those whom they reasonably expect to be patterns of propriety, system, and order, examples of fickleness, indecision, and instability. Added to this is the fact that such are usually persons of extreme dilatoriness and procrastination when duties present themselves, and of great bluster when anything is finally attempted. It is proper here to remark, that there is no more powerful means of maintaining discipline than a consistent regard for the established rules of an institution exemplified in their observance by all the officers, so far as they apply to them. Example is a far more powerful teacher than precept, and one who does not himself regard rules can, with very little reason, expect to compel their observance by others.

The expedients available in maintaining discipline are various. Preferable to any punitive measures following an offence is that manner of discipline which in a measure forecasts events and anticipating a dereliction, prevents its occurrence, either by an adroit change of affairs for the time being, or by friendly admonition, inducing the exercise of better judgment.

The conscience presents to the guardian of youth not only a field of moral culture but also a valuable auxiliary in maintaining becoming or-

der and system. When the *morale* of a school is a sense of duty, rather than of compulsory obligation, the further task of discipline is comparatively light, and it may be safely averred that he is the best disciplinarian who is most successful in fostering among his pupils such a motive to correct demeanor, impressing his wards that the rules prescribed for their observance are solely designed for their good and happiness. He who has succeeded in this has not only established his government, but has also obtained on the part of the pupil the condition which must precede all successful instruction; unless the mind of the pupil is so related to the mind of the teacher as to be receptive of the truth to be taught, no amount of dignity or austerity can impart valuable instruction. This receptive condition of mind is secured far more by kindness and affability than by strength of muscle and birch rods. This kindness of discipline is like the permeating heat which softens the rigid metal for the fashioning of the mechanic, when no pounding of however long continuance could have shaped the cold iron. It has been remarked of nations, "that is the best government which is least felt and observed." It is also true of institutions like ours.

Yet human nature sometimes presents us, even in youth, instances of perversity which only chastisement more or less severe will correct. The means to be used in such cases may not properly always be the same, even for similar offences. Retributive justice is by no means to be had in view in the correction of a youthful offender. The excision of bad habits, the arrest of vicious tendencies, with the consequent turning to their opposites under a deep impression of the truth that has passed into a proverb "the child is father to the man," are the considerations which should be uppermost in the mind of any person whose unpleasant duty it has become to inflict some form of punishment. This is a duty which it becomes one to enter upon resolutely yet with deliberation. Hence it is a prudent course, to decide upon the nature of the particular punishment, and to carry it out on the day following the offence. This is the more so, from the fact that it sometimes occurs, that one finds himself at once in the position of law-maker, plaintiff, judge, jury, witness, attorney, and executor of the sentence; a combination of relations which, though unavoidable, need to be borne with circumspection. It was said by the wise man many centuries ago, "because sentence against an evil work is not executed speedily, the heart of the sons of men is fully set in them to do evil." It is still true that in some cases, as of insolence and insubordination, a respect for one's authority will not brook delay, but even in these cases punishment should never be inflicted under the influence of passion.

Aptness to teach and tact in government are qualities which, however desirable in their association, are not always found coupled together. The latter is perhaps more unusual than the former. Nevertheless, one who is entrusted with the instruction of children and youth should also be clothed with authority to visit chastisement upon the unruly. Without it, it is impossible for him to retain the respect of his pupils for his authority that his position renders absolutely necessary for him to possess. Consequently punishment should be determined, and in most cases inflicted, by the officer against whom or under whose supervision the offence has been committed.

The kind of punishment inflicted should be suited to the temperament of the offending party as well as to the gravity of the offence. Correction may be administered on one with decidedly salutary results, which similarly visited upon another, whose mental and moral constitution is different, would inevitably aggravate the evil sought to be reformed, and

would tend to confirm the offender in his wrong disposition. It would be exceedingly difficult, indeed, impossible, to state in advance precisely what manner of correction should follow particular offences, there are so many qualifying circumstances beside temperament whose proper consideration so far modifies the punitive judgment to be arrived at.

Of punitive instrumentalities the rod is the dernier resort, but one which the writer has used with less frequency as time has elapsed, but when used, so applied as not to be soon or readily forgotten. Demerit marks, private and public reprimands, temporary imprisonment, deprivation of a meal, withholding favorite articles of diet, the assignment of an onerous task requiring continued and fatiguing physical effort, are among those of more frequent occurrence of later years.

There are other means of maintaining order to which no reference has yet been made, whose exercise is a virtual acknowledgement of total failure of government or of reformatory influences upon the individual who suffers it. Yet as the success of a school, as well as the happiness and welfare of its individual members sometimes renders expulsion necessary, it is not inappropriate to such a paper as this. In the common schools of the country, as well as in the institutions of a higher grade, expulsion is not so calamitous to the sufferer as in institutions for special classes. A youth having been expelled from one of our speaking schools can readily gain admission to another, and may by timely reformation retrieve his lost character. But in the case of a deaf mute, institutions for him are so few, and all, except the one from which shut out, beyond the boundaries of his own State, final dismissal is tantamount to utterly cutting off from him all hopes of further improvement, intellectual and moral. Hence, with our peculiar beneficiaries, this means of discipline should be exercised only when the failure of every other instrumentality for their reformation has shown them to be absolutely incorrigible, and when the future character of their associates requires the removal of their contaminating influences. This is analogous to the surgeon's scalpel, which is only used when the safety of the system requires the sacrifice of a limb.

At the close of the reading of the paper by Mr. Gillett, Mr. I. L. Peet inquired if the writer allowed the use of demerit marks.

Mr. Gillett replied affirmatively.

Mr. Peet further inquired if Mr. Gillett insisted that the punishment of an offence should be visited upon the offender by the person or officer against whom the offence was committed.

Mr. Gillett replied, that he thought every officer of an institution should be clothed with such authority, and that if any officer was incapable of wisely determining upon the nature of chastisement suited to an offence he was unfitted for his position.

Mr. Peet then remarked, in substance, that in his opinion such punishment should never be inflicted except by the principal, especially in a large institution where there were many teachers of different temperaments, and that to secure perfect uniformity of government all cases requiring discipline, other than those which could be corrected by simple rebuke and advice, should be reported to the principal. With this exception the paper which had been read met his hearty concurrence, and to this end he offered a resolution that the paper in question should be adopted by the convention as expressing its sense of the subject.

The president stated that resolutions were not now in order.

The fourth paper was then read by Rev. Benj. Talbot, principal of the Iowa Institution, as follows :

THE PROPER AGE FOR THE ADMISSION OF PUPILS TO INSTITUTIONS  
FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB.

To everything there is a season, and a time to every purpose under the heaven.—*Solomon*.

To those who have the management and instruction of deaf-mutes in charge, it is a highly important question at what age they shall be admitted to our institutions; and the answer we give it in practice will seriously affect the welfare of the institution as a whole, and that of each particular pupil received. There is a reasonable as well as a seasonable period in each one's life at which the work of instruction and education can best be carried on, and if we have the wisdom to seize the proper time for its beginning, we may fairly hope to secure the best results.

In practice we find two difficulties to contend with. On the one hand some parents are urgent to crowd their children into school as early as possible, partly from a natural desire to have them learning, and a sense of their own incapacity to teach them, and partly to break up bad habits and associates, and have them under proper control. Their motives are good, but wisdom is questionable.

On the other hand there is in many cases the greatest difficulty in getting the deaf and dumb to school early enough. Often, through a mistaken regard for the feelings of the children, oftener through an undue though tender clinging to their unfortunate offspring, parents will keep them at home year after year, long beyond the proper time for schooling. In such cases the motive deserves respect, though it leads to action that is unreasonable and injurious. The highest good of the child should be sought, and neither the child's feelings, nor those of the parent should be allowed to stand in the way.

Often, again, especially in the newer States, there is an economical hindrance and obstacle; parents are, or think they are, too poor to send their children to school. Sometimes they cannot easily raise the means to clothe them properly; sometimes they think they must have their childrens labor at home on the farm, or about the house, and cannot be induced to spare them for the purposes of education. If the poverty be real it deserves pity, and aid should be given by the State, or by local authorities; if it be assumed it is only niggardly, stingy parsimony, which deserves contempt and ought to be scourged by the strong arm of the law till it is bled into a healthy generosity and clarity, at least that which "begins at home."

The result of these two opposite tendencies, the undue pressure of some parents for an early education, and the culpable negligence of others, is apparent in the great disparity in the ages of our pupils, which range from nine or ten years to twenty-five and upwards, sometimes even in the newest classes. Every one familiar with deaf and dumb institutions will see the absolute impossibility, especially in small schools, of a proper classification. The only remedy for this evil is to be found in securing the attendance of the pupils at the proper age.

The old English rule for the management of children, "seven years at home, seven years at school, and seven years at a trade," bringing a person to his majority, equipped for life's work, was perhaps a good one for its time, and for English ideas, but it could hardly be made to work in the New World, and at least needs modification for our specialty of deaf-mute education.

Of course we cannot presume to fix an inflexible rule for the admission of pupils, like a procrustean bed, which shall be our invariable standard.

Maturity both of body and of mind, personal habits, mental peculiarities, the conditions and surroundings of home life, and still other elements, are to be taken into account to assist in making a correct decision in each particular case. Yet there are certain facts of experience and observation that will help us to a general rule, which will be approximately correct.

The candidate for admission should be neither too old nor too young. The mistake made by delaying too long to begin the education of the deaf and dumb is readily apparent, and is the same as that committed in allowing a speaking child to grow up in ignorance; though the evil is greatly aggravated in the case of deaf-mutes, from the fact that they get little or none of the unconscious and necessary education which the speaking child receives by contact with others. The youth who is subjected to this calamity in addition to the infirmity of deafness comes to the institution lacking mental vigor and activity, and too often incapable of intellectual development. The mind that was plastic and capable of expansion has by disuse become stiff and shrivelled, so that the utmost efforts of the teacher, and the greatest diligence of the pupil, too often fail to breathe into it the breath of life, and so, for lack of development at the proper time, it must forever remain narrow and contracted, and its acquisitions will be slight and unsatisfactory. If the pupil in this condition is in the least degree sensitive, the contact which will unavoidably appear to all (even to himself) between him and the younger and brighter children, will fill him with mortification, and still further embarrass and discourage him. With the most faithful instruction, and the most careful management, the education of such pupils is comparative, and in most cases a decided failure. Like the feeble-minded among their number, they lay up some valuable moral and religious instruction, and are aided in forming correct habits; but in the knowledge of books and language, and in ability to communicate intelligently with others, they must remain forever most lamentably deficient.

In addition to this want of success, and the consequent discredit on deaf-mute education, the institution suffers in such cases from the necessary disparity in the classes, and the impossibility of perfect classification, and still further from the difficulty of managing those who have come to the school so confirmed in evil habits and bad dispositions that they cannot be set right. Such pupils not unfrequently must be dismissed, not only with imperfect mental development, but also with deficient moral training, to prove a curse to society and an expense to the State.

Would that some mighty voice could arouse to their duty those careless parents who are even now inflicting this grievous wrong on their children, and preparing a future woe for them and all that may have to do with them. There are a few exceptional cases among the deaf and dumb, as among hearing and speaking youths, in which this rusting and blunting of the mental powers does not occur, and where there seems to have been no loss by the delay to enter school. Persons do come to our institution at a comparatively advanced age, whose minds are yet as vigorous and active as those of their younger fellows, or whose strong determination to learn enables them to overcome all hindrances, and stimulates them to such diligence that they make good progress, and stand well in their classes. But such exceptions only serve to prove the adverse rule; and who can say that their acquisitions would not have been greater, and more easily made, if they had commenced their studies earlier?

The experience and observation of all will agree in the recommendation that the age for admission should be low enough to give time for the proper mental development, and to warrant the hope that the moral



training and discipline of the institution will secure correct habits. But, on the other hand, caution should be used that pupils be not admitted too early in life. Serious evils arise from an error in this direction as well as in the other; evils against which those in charge of an institution may and should guard. These evils also affect both the institution and the individual pupil, entailing extra care and expense of management on the former, and a loss of time and acquisition on the latter. They will be suggested more at length as we proceed to lay down certain rules for our guidance in fixing the lower limit of admission.

In the first place, on the physical side, the pupils before coming to school should have attained a good degree of health and strength, and some measure of bodily maturity. They must be old enough and strong enough to bear the confinement of the school-room and of application to study, without injury to their physical health. It will be all the better if they have had at home the usual contagious diseases of childhood, that the officers of the institution may not have to bear the anxiety and care attendant upon such sickness. The pupils should also be both able and accustomed to take reasonable care of their own persons and apparel, in order to lighten as far as possible the labor of the officers. While the management of the institution should be parental, and even motherly, in attention to the wants of the pupils, and while the older brothers and sisters in this great family should be taught and required to assist in the care of the younger, yet we may, and must, and will protest against our institutions becoming nurseries for such as are not old enough to leave a mother's care.

Intellectually, too, the pupil should have come to a reasonable degree of maturity at his first admission. Here it may be proper to observe, that the drift of enlightened public sentiment is in the main against infant schools and undue forcing of tender minds. The lower limit of the school age, as fixed by law, is five years in the newer, instead of four as in the older, States; and some educators are firmly convinced and say positively that children should not enter school before the age of seven. In many respects a deaf and dumb child of ten is less mature than a speaking child of seven. As his advantages have been fewer, so his capacity is less, or at least less perfectly developed; and therefore less may be expected of him in school.

Now, our deaf and dumb pupils have no slight task before them in the six or seven years usually allowed them in school. To master a vocabulary of English words and idioms sufficient for ordinary reading and writing; to become familiar enough with the rules of arithmetic to transact the business of common life safely; and to lay up such stores of historical, geographical, and scientific knowledge as shall enable the possessor to understand and enjoy the reading of ordinary books and papers; this is a work, which, if crowded into seven years, (as in most cases it must be,) surely demands that they be the seven years of all the life that are best adapted to such acquisitions. It is safe to say that some children enter our institutions quite too young to grapple with this work successfully, because their minds lack the necessary degree of strength and power of application. Like other children they are restless and inattentive, and in many cases have not the power of will and the self control requisite to concentrate their minds upon their studies. In their tender years they waste much time, either in learning how to learn, or in acquiring the power; and so fail to make the most satisfactory progress.

Again, instruction in trades and handicraft generally, (so important to a complete education of the deaf and dumb, and so desirable in all

our institutions,) cannot be profitably given to mere children. This needs physical strength and power of endurance, skill, and aptitude for the use of tools, and some measure of judgment and discretion; which requisites are as a rule found only in those who have passed the age of childhood and are approaching maturity. Without these, material will be wasted, work will be poorly done, and the instruction will be thrown away, to the loss both of the institution and of the pupil concerned.

Lastly, this period of early youth is the very best time for that moral and religious instruction of the pupils which should underlie and prompt all our efforts for them. The years of tender childhood are the years when the moral effect of home life and influences should be secured—when the child should have his heart so filled with the love of parents and the home circle, and should so learn the lesson of home duties and the value of home privileges, that the family tie shall never be wilfully broken. As he advances in life and approaches the time for taking his place in society, he needs instruction in the mutual relations and acknowledged obligations of social life; and these he can learn, both by precept and example, in school better than he can at home. Here, too, under proper managers and teachers, fitted by nature, education, and practice, for their work, he may hope to receive those moral and religious lessons which shall form his character aright, and which, by God's blessing, shall make him wise unto salvation and eternal life.

We would make no argument in favor of delaying for a single day the moral and religious instruction of deaf and dumb any more than of speaking children. They should from the first learn the lessons of obedience and love, and should as early as possible receive instruction in heavenly things; but, all things considered, youth rather than childhood is the period at which this instruction should be expected of our institutions. For we are not only, if possible, to bring our pupils into the right way, but also to impart to them such lessons of wisdom and patience as shall fit them for the duties, the cares, and the trials of life. Especially are we to unfold and explain to them God's holy word, and to qualify them to understand what they read therein, that they may be able through all their lives to draw instruction and comfort from this unfailing spring; a work which certainly cannot be successfully done in the tender and less mature years of childhood, but which requires some advancement in intellectual strength.

The sum of this discussion then is, that in admitting pupils to our deaf and dumb institutions we should seek for the golden mean—taking them, if possible, neither too young nor too old. If asked to name some age as a proper guide, I should say, with my present light, from 11 to 13, according to the degree of maturity displayed in mind and body jointly. Perhaps the rule once suggested by Mr. Carlin, 10 for girls and 12 for boys, would be found to be not far out of the way. Let there be no delay beyond the limit above named, except to secure established health; neither let the lower limit be anticipated, except where it is absolutely necessary to break up bad habits and associations.

The next paper was presented by President Gallaudet, of the Columbia Institution, which was introduced with some explanatory remarks, as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT: Before presenting the paper which I purpose with your indulgence to read to the conference, I desire to say a word in explanation, with reference to the position which it has been assumed in certain quarters I hold with regard to the American system of deaf-mute instruction.

In the controversy which has been going on for some time in New England, certain parties opposed to the theory and to the practice of the American system, as it now exists in our established institutions, have claimed me as a friend to their views. It has been stated in a recent publication, issued in Boston by the Board of State Charities of Massachusetts, that I am in favor of teaching all deaf-mutes by articulation.

And in other places, as I have learned from time to time, the parties to this controversy have undertaken to claim me as thinking with them and as desiring to act with them, and as differing in my views from my honored father in regard to the work which he did something to initiate and to upbuild.

Before reading this paper, therefore, which by its title would seem to indicate that I am disposed to call in question the present practice, I desire to have it distinctly understood by the gentlemen of this conference that I have in no sense departed from the views and opinions that were set forth by my father, and that have been maintained by those who have followed him in the work of teaching the deaf and dumb, down to the present time. And I am not to be claimed as a convert to the system of teaching the deaf and dumb by articulation, which system to a greater or less extent ignores the use of signs.

And, moreover, I desire it to be understood that my feelings and sentiments are in entire harmony, so far as I am aware, with the opinions of the gentlemen who compose our conference, and who represent our institutions, or what may be termed the great body of American instructors of the deaf and dumb. I feel it due to myself to make this explanation, so that in the statement of views I now bring before you, I may not be understood as occupying, in the slightest degree, the position of an unfriendly critic, or of a questionable friend.

With your permission, Mr. President, I will now proceed to read a paper entitled

#### THE AMERICAN SYSTEM OF DEAF-MUTE INSTRUCTION, ITS INCIDENTAL DEFECTS AND THEIR REMEDIES.

In no country of Europe can there be said to exist at the present time a system of deaf-mute instruction which may be properly termed national.

In France, while the methods of de l'Épée still form the basis of effort in this branch of educational labor, in many, but not in all schools, some of the distinctive ideas of Heinicke are accorded a position of considerable importance.

In Germany, where the practices of this last-named pioneer are still maintained to a wellnigh universal extent, modifications have been introduced in certain places by his successors; and at the same time so much of the theory of the great French teacher has been accepted and adopted as to remove from the method once called the German many of its distinguishing features.

In Great Britain, the precepts laid down by Braidwood and the elder Watson in regard to the teaching of articulation are now but little regarded, and while perhaps in this country a greater concord exists than elsewhere in Europe, the system can hardly be called national.

The United States alone, of all the nations where public educational establishments are maintained on an extended scale, presents the spectacle of a uniformity so nearly entire as to justify the application of the national adjective to the system of instructing the class of persons whose interests we are now considering.

Twenty-four widely separated institutions, founded from time to time

during a period of fifty years, governed by organizations entirely independent of each other, covering in their benevolent work every square mile of our settled territory, employing more than one hundred and twenty instructors, and sheltering within their walls more than twenty-five hundred children, may be seen to-day following the methods and maintaining without essential change the system introduced into the country by Dr. Gallaudet in 1816.

A harmony so wide-spread and long continued could scarcely have resulted from the accidental\* transplanting of an inferior system from Europe. Especially does this seem impossible when we consider the free intercourse that has existed between this country and the old world; the immense tide of immigration that has poured in upon us; the untrammelled condition of the press and the disposition of educated Americans to travel in Europe and report to their countrymen the results of their observations.

The entirely unprofessional observer, in weighing the considerations suggested by this remarkable unison among our deaf-mute institutions, could not escape the conviction that much of truth and reason must dwell where such a coincidence of opinion and practice was found.

Nor is the force of this position to be weakened by the fact that within the past two years schools for the instruction of deaf-mutes have been opened at Northampton, Massachusetts, and in New York city, the supporters and teachers of which call to naught the old system and profess to be in possession of methods of far greater value than those hitherto approved in the established institutions.

For it has not yet appeared that these new schools are fulfilling the promise of their founders; nor yet that those who conduct them will not go further than they have already done in recognizing the correctness of views and the necessity of methods they but a short time since combatted and decried.†

It may therefore be taken as the starting point in reviewing the American system of deaf-mute instruction that it has the endorsement of national unanimity, extending over a period fully half as great as is embraced in the entire record of organized effort in this peculiar field of benevolence.

With this weighty testimony in its favor the writer of this paper will pass to the consideration of those features of the system, as it is at present practiced, which invite criticism. Defects they may be called; not organic, however, or inherent, but functional, wholly incidental, removable, curable.

Fear of criticism is a direct concession of weakness, at least in organized if not in individual effort. So also is an indisposition to acknowledge a palpable error when even an unfriendly eye has discovered it and an opposing hand has pointed it out.

The writer will not therefore suggest the possibility of the existence of either of these feelings in the minds of those to whom this paper is primarily presented, and will offer no apology for calling attention to those defects his friendly eye sees in the practical workings of a system to the upbuilding and perfecting of which he has devoted the best years of his life; a system that is endeared to him by every consideration of filial respect.

\* See Mr. Gardiner G. Hubbard's pamphlet.

† It will be remembered by many present that the supporters of the institution now located at Northampton, when it was located at Chelmsford, came before the legislature of Massachusetts, and gravely asserted that in the instruction imparted in that institution, signs were not to be used. Now, in the report of the institution, as it comes to us this year, the president of the board of directors distinctly makes the admission that signs are to be used, the discovery having been made that the execution of an impossibility had been undertaken.

It is a fact that will probably be admitted by all whose experience in teaching deaf-mutes has extended over a series of years that many pupils of fair intelligence and industrious habits of study, having enjoyed a period of five, six, or seven years of instruction, leave their respective institutions without having acquired the ability to express ideas, even on common subjects, in absolutely correct written language.

We may go further and claim that very few congenital mutes, with the ordinary course of seven years, are able so to express ideas they may desire to communicate to others, that their deaf-muteness will not be made immediately apparent to one who is familiar with the errors common to such persons.

Possibly it may be thought to be saying too much, but the writer fears it is true that many deaf-mutes, of good mind and a willingness to learn, leave school after having enjoyed the *time* of a full primary course, wholly unable to produce a page of original composition that shall be free from errors of grammar or of idiom.

Certain parties whose attention has been directed to this circumstance have immediately inferred and claimed that it gave evidence of an organic defect in the system of instruction and have used it as an argument for the acceptance of another, widely different in its theory and practice, losing sight, however, of the fact that in Germany whence they would draw their proposed substitute the same unsatisfactory results are found in the working out of the methods sought to be introduced.\*

All teachers of deaf and dumb, and most persons who are in any degree familiar with them, understand that the imparting of the power to use and comprehend the full force of written language constitutes the chief labor of their education.

With the great majority of this class there undoubtedly exists the mental capacity to master language perfectly. Why this is not done in a great many cases and how it may be achieved is our purpose now to inquire.

Three causes present themselves, which, in our judgment, fully account for the existence of the difficulty referred to, the removal of which is believed to be entirely within the range of possibility.

That in six or seven years congenitally deaf pupils with specially quick and retentive minds, under circumstances uninterruptedly favorable, may acquire a tolerably perfect command of language is true; but to expect this of the mass is unreasonable.

What proportion of hearing children of the age of eight years are found to be free from errors of grammar or of idiom in their utterance of language? And yet these have greatly the advantage over deaf-mutes whose opportunities for acquiring language have been limited to six or seven years' course of instruction.

The education of a hearing child begins with the first loving inquiry of nurse or mother, and long before the babe can say papa or mama, it comprehends much that is addressed to its susceptible ear. This education continues during well-nigh every waking moment until the years of

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\* It should be mentioned, in this connection, that the writer found in Europe, last summer, teachers who followed the plan of instructing by articulation, ready to admit, almost without an exception, that difficulties were experienced in their schools in imparting language correctly to their pupils; that very many of their pupils left school after a full course of instruction quite unable to write their vernacular with correctness, or so to use the terms of the language that their deaf-mutism would not be discovered readily. This is mentioned to direct attention to the point claimed by many persons as an excellence of the system of teaching by articulation, that it imparts language far more correctly than the other system does.

maturity are reached. Nor need precious time be taken from the years of attendance upon school for special instruction in language.

But how different is the case of the congenital mute! With him the acquisition of language other than that of pantomime is a conscious and oftentimes painful effort at every step. Possessing absolutely nothing of it when the age of 10 years is reached, he enters school and finds his chief labor to be the securing of that which his more favored brother has gained without teachers and without special exertion. And besides this he is to lay in what stores of knowledge he may in a period not longer than that allowed to children free from the disabilities under which he labors.

In the early days of our work, when grave doubts existed in the public mind whether the enlightenment of the deaf and dumb was possible beyond a very limited range; when would-be economists begrudged the expense of boarding as well as teaching this class of children at public charge, and accorded them a minimum number of years; when a deaf-mute was looked upon as a creature widely differing in mental construction from his fellows, almost a monster, whose disenthralment was to be regarded rather as an interesting experiment than a work of practical value to the community; when parents, even, could be induced with difficulty to consent to their children's remaining at school for three or four years; in those days of uncertainty it was plainly wiser to accept for the children of silence the boon of an imperfect education, than to leave them in ignorance.

But now, when the right of these persons to education is universally admitted; when it can be demonstrated that the expenditures involved yield a rich return of actual wealth to the state in the increased value of the intelligent labor of the mutes; when enlarged facilities for the education of speaking youth are being multiplied by national, state and individual bounty; when in most of our large cities and in many of our rural towns children may spend twelve years in the public schools preparing for college or for business pursuits; shall the friends of the deaf and dumb be satisfied with a course of study limited to five, six, or seven years?

What speaking child, beginning his alphabet at the age of seven and quitting school at eleven, could be said to have had a sufficient education to enable him to win his way in the world? And yet four years to him is surely as much as seven years for the deaf-mute.

But it may be replied that in several States the term of study has been extended to nine or ten years, and that high classes have been successfully maintained. This does not reach the difficulty, since these advanced classes are for a selected few, one in ten perchance or one in twenty of the whole number, while the mass are in no way directly benefited. And it will not be denied that diplomas have been granted even to graduating members of these high classes, who would find it difficult to write a dozen pages of original composition which should be absolutely correct in grammatical construction and idiomatic expression. It should be borne in mind further that high classes are designed only for those who evince special aptitude in study, and are not intended to benefit the many whose deficiencies in language we are now considering.

The defect, therefore, for which we are aiming to account will not be remedied by the general establishment of high classes. The reform should begin at the other end of the course, and infant classes, or juvenile departments, or better still separate schools rigidly held down to the work of elementary instruction, should be established or patronized by every State in the Union.

In these infant schools a course of four years might be afforded; in the institutions of higher grade at least six years should be given to all save those plainly deficient in intellect, and then the high class should be added for the further advancement of those who evince special talent and may desire to fit themselves for college or for the pursuit of vocations requiring more than an elementary education.

The limits laid down for this paper will not admit of a more extended allusion to the important subject of infant schools for the deaf and dumb.\* It is to be hoped, however, that the example set some years ago by Professor D. E. Bartlett in his private school at Poughkeepsie, New York, and more recently by the Institution at New York city, and by the Clarke Institution at Northampton, of bringing the deaf-mute child under instruction at the earliest possible moment, may be followed till the practice shall have become a distinguishing feature of our national system, the successful introduction of which into our work will, it is believed, go very far to remove the defect we are now specially considering.

But there are other reasons why many intelligent deaf-mutes fail to acquire the power of expressing their thoughts in correct written language.

The language of signs in its present state of development furnishes so easy and exact and beautiful a means of communication between teacher and pupil, that the temptation is strong to use it to an extent which may operate unfavorably upon the pupil. A little reflection will readily show how this occurs; and while the writer would not be understood as underrating the importance of signs, but rather as according them a high office at each and every stage of the education of the deaf and dumb, he would urge that in the acquisition of a new language, its practice should be aimed at on all possible occasions. Hence in the mastery of artificial language by the deaf-mute, every opportunity should be embraced by him and by his teacher to use the incoming language, and just so soon as enough of it can be secured to suffice for the expression of the wants and thoughts of the pupil and to convey the instructions of the teacher, should the new language be given the preference.

Here it is believed lies a grave fault in the practice of our institutions.

Teachers and officers use signs far too freely; pupils are allowed to use them long after they might employ the finger alphabet in many of their communications.

In how many of our schools are teachers in the habit of communicating by manual spelling new facts, in the shape of miniature lectures, couched in language they are sure their pupils can comprehend? How often are pupils assembled in pleasant social gathering wherein all conversation is required to be in fingerspelling? How general is the rule that all favors of the principal asked by pupils of over three years' standing must be asked in correctly-spelled language or be denied? How often is the brake of dactylology applied to that well-known ever-moving propensity to talk in the school-room? Is it not true that in a great majority of cases the actual use by the pupil of the forms of his vernacular is con-

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\* It is worthy of mention in this connection, that at Manchester, in England, at the present time, there is a very successful infant school in connection with the larger institution for the deaf and dumb, which has existed for many years. It forms a distinct department, and is under the direction of ladies. The meals are taken entirely separate from those of the higher department, and the sleeping apartments are distinct: the hours of study also differ. The whole programme of operations from day to day for this infant department is arranged with special reference to adapting it to the capabilities of infants. Children are received as young as five years old, and are retained until prepared to go into the higher department.

fined to the hours of school and study, and that even here signs are largely employed at times when they might be dispensed with? When speaking children are sent to French or German schools for the purpose of acquiring the languages spoken by the teachers of those schools, are they not expected, after a short time, to make the new languages the media of communication with all around them? Why then should not the case be so with the deaf and dumb? In coming to our institutions the learning of the sign language is not their most important task. Their lives are not in a majority of cases to be passed among deaf-mutes, but in association with speaking people, and their great object is to acquire a means of communicating accurately with the world in general. The failure to do this, manifest in too many of the graduates of our institutions, stands forth as the gravest practical defect of our system, and is largely attributable, in the opinion of the writer, to the cause just recited, which may so readily be removed.

But another source of difficulty is found to exist in many of our institutions, which operates to produce the result we are now considering. And in naming this the writer wishes to avoid if possible giving offence to those hard-working faithful teachers, who are striving to the best of their ability in a profession they are not fitted by nature or previous training to adorn.

In alluding to the fact that incompetent teachers are now being employed in many of our institutions, the writer would expressly disclaim any intention of reflecting personally on them, or yet on the principals who are compelled to employ such as are willing to work at low rates of compensation. But he would charge home on boards of directors the grave responsibility of sacrificing the best interests of the deaf and dumb, and of degrading the profession for the sake of making a show of great economy. The idea is lamentably prevalent that the teaching of the deaf and dumb may be successfully performed by persons whose own training has been no more extended than that they would seek to impart. Than which a more fatal error does not exist.

In the education of speaking youth, is it not essential to the highest success that the teacher should have carried his own culture to a point far beyond that to which he seeks to lead his pupils? What fitness would the college professor be thought to possess, who had limited his range of study to the mere curriculum of the college course? Why is a previous college training requisite in a man who would make a successful principal of a grammar school? And why should the teacher of a primary school be required to graduate from a high school before being regarded as fitted for his or her work? And if the obvious answer to these questions be the enunciation of a sound principle in the case of schools for the speaking, is it not even more essential in the work of instructing children deprived of language and hearing, where are to be encountered unusual difficulties in the pursuit of knowledge, that only highly cultivated and talented instructors should be employed?

The founder of our American system was of this opinion, and gathered around him men of large intellectual endowments and as liberal education as was then required in college professors.

The success of those early days in teaching *language* to deaf mutes has not been surpassed in later times. It is even to be feared that in many instances the results of recent effort will compare unfavorably with the work of former years. That this is in large measure attributable to the cause just now considered there can be no reasonable doubt; and it is worthy of the most serious consideration of the managers of our institutions whether the saving to the public treasury of a few dollars can justify the continuance of so grave an evil.



Second in importance only to the employment of competent teachers in the work of instructing the deaf and dumb is the possession of text books, prepared with particular reference to the growing capabilities of the deaf-mute mind. The great lack of a precise language and the fact of its slow and painful acquirement, make it important that the pupil should have offered to him, at the successive stages of his advancement, books whose terms and style shall be within his comprehension.

The practice of explaining by signs the daily lessons of a class is, it is believed, often carried to an extreme which produces evil results.

In the structure of conventional language, aimed to be completed in the mind of the deaf-mute, grammatical, idiomatic sentences are the blocks and columns of stone that are to give strength and beauty to the edifice. The language of pantomime is the mortar, necessary to join the parts together, but to be used sparingly, and to be pressed out, so to speak, by the weightier material which is to give character and durability to the work. Should it be used in excess the base of the building will surely crumble before the cap stone is laid.

The course of instruction with the deaf and dumb should be so arranged that the measure of language first acquired may be made use of to explain what is to come after.

As soon as possible, language should be built upon language.

But the style of text books at present available does not admit of this, and not until a complete series, embracing language lessons, geography, history, arithmetic, and the elements of natural science, shall have been successfully prepared, will our system attain to its greatest effectiveness.

And then text books should be so arranged that they may be grasped by pupils, with a minimum of sign explanation, to the end that before the close of the primary course they may have acquired the power of apprehending the full force of language as they meet it in books, without depending on pantomimic elucidations from the teacher.

In the progress of the college, embracing as it does representatives of eleven of the State institutions, this inability on the part of students to use text books to the best advantage is plainly and sometimes painfully evident; indicating that the pupil had been suffered to depend on his teacher for the *meaning* of whatever may have presented a difficulty in the books he was using, or worse yet that he had been permitted to go forward without understanding what his mind had attempted to grasp.

In the school education of youth, the sum of information secured on the various subjects that enter into the course of study is by no means the only result to be considered and valued, nor does it even occupy the place of greatest importance. Of far higher moment is it than that the pupil should gorge his memory with facts, that he should have his mind so trained as to be able to continue successfully that longer and grander course of study which is to terminate only with life itself. Here the student's greatest power lies in his ability to receive the full import of books, they being his chief preceptors in this highest earthly school.

The true end to be aimed at in the school or the college, when the eternal development of the intellect is considered, is to impart to the student the power of independent study.

To him who may devote himself to literature or science this power is as the breath of life, while to him whose tastes or necessities lead to mechanical employments or business pursuits, it will constitute a source of high enjoyment, and a means of development in the hours of relaxation from labor, the value of which cannot well be over estimated.

In the acquisition of this power the deaf-mute finds himself surrounded with peculiar difficulties, which, however, cease to exist the moment he

finds himself able to comprehend the full force of written language. So long as he depends on the sign explanations of his teacher for his understanding of the books he is using, must he be considered as an infant taking his first uncertain steps, sure to fall to the ground whenever the essential support of finger or chair is removed.

If the experience of our college work may be taken as an index, it is to be feared that too many, even of our intelligent deaf-mutes, fail to acquire the power of walking alone, and so go through life stumbling among the intricacies of language over which they have not learned to step, and clinging to that helpful and useful, but sometimes hurtful pantomime, weak and uncertain in their movements, and this through no organic feebleness, nor yet from any inherent defect of the system under which they are educated, but because of the existence of the removable evils we have briefly rehearsed.

Leaving now, for a time, the consideration of imperfections found actually to exist in the working of our system, let us direct our attention to a branch of a deaf-mute instruction which has been made a *casum belli* in former years by prominent European teachers, and in regard to which the public mind in this country has been interested of late to an unusual extent. The teaching of artificial speech to deaf-mutes, (or to persons classed as such,) while it has, in several of our institutions, been practiced to a very limited extent, cannot be said to have become at any time an essential feature of our system.

The subject, therefore, can only claim a place in this paper, on the assumption that its omission from our practice constitutes a defect.

On the settlement of this point hang, in the opinion of the writer, issues of the gravest consequence in the great and growing work devolving upon our institutions. Not that the thing itself is of paramount importance to a majority of the deaf and dumb, for it affects practically but a minority and to them is not a vital interest; but because it may be made the means, under certain circumstances, of raising up a conflict of opinion, an opposition of effort which can be only productive of evil to those whose interests are most intimately involved. In a certain sense, articulation may be called the will-o' the-wisp—the mirage of the deaf and dumb and their friends.

The avidity with which people follow after it, and the willingness they manifest to be deceived by it, are attributable to the same causes which operate to fill the audience chambers and the pockets of quacks and charlatans.

Who will not run *some* risk of being swindled and deceived, when the probability seems fair of regaining strength in a paralyzed limb, a sightless eye, or a palsied ear.

When we consider what is promised by teachers of articulation; when we reflect on the wonderful proofs they are able to give in exceptional or half-explained cases; and when we remember the weakness of human nature, with its proneness to accept shams when the possibility of advantage can be made to appear; the wonder that so many are deceived will be very greatly abated.

The important question, however, remains, whether we shall carefully analyze the whole system of articulation, accepting and adopting in good faith those elements that are plainly or even probably valuable, and so satisfy the public demand that attention shall be paid to this branch of deaf-mute instruction, or whether we shall by negative action or a hostile attitude foster a spirit of rivalry between opposing systems, only to renew in this country the dissensions and discussions of Heinicke and de l'Épée and their successors, which are now well nigh at an end in an

arena where both parties are approaching agreement in a system combining all the advantages of the once rival systems.

That establishments which purport to be institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb should make use of all means which can be shown to be of service in the work they undertake to perform, needs not to be urged in the presence of Americans. Ours is a country distinguished above others for its liberal ideas—our public institutions are eminently progressive, we do not pay an abject homage to precedents, and in the schools under our charge we need not say “Articulation has never been made a regular feature in our system of instruction, therefore *we* will ignore its claims.” Nor yet are we to fortify ourselves in an antagonistic position by citing the opinions of others that “the German system is greatly inferior to the French.” Our duty is to determine whether *anything* in the system of Heinicke can be made of practical value to any considerable portion of the class with which we have to deal, and if this question is decided in the affirmative to proceed at once to give effect to the decision.

In the official examination of the deaf-mute schools of Europe, instituted by the managers of several of our American institutions, much testimony has been collected on this subject and is available at the present day in the form of reports. It will be instructive to refer to these documents and ascertain what their authors recommend.

In the year 1844, two distinguished instructors—Prof. G. E. Day, of the New York institution, and Lewis Weld, the principal of the American Asylum at Hartford were directed by the authorities of their respective institutions to examine critically the European schools for deaf-mutes and report the results of their investigations. While according a decided superiority to the American over the European schools, and preferring the system of *de l'Épée* to that of Heinicke for the *mass*, their testimony was agreed that for a portion of the so-called deaf and dumb, especially those whose deprivation of hearing and speech was only partial, instruction in articulation was desirable.\*

Mr. Weld went even further and said, “There is still another class whom I would not exclude from the benefits of a fair experiment. I mean those, few indeed in number, but yet sometimes found, who, possessed of superior natural powers and in all respects under favorable circumstances, are anxious to undertake the labor, and are found so persevering and successful as to warrant its continuance.”

Professor Leon Vaisse, then an instructor in the institution at Paris, now its distinguished head, who travelled for some time with Mr. Weld, bearing a part in the observations he was making, gave even a more decided testimony in favor of articulation, in a letter appended to Mr. Weld's report, as follows:

“As for myself, I now think, as I did before our tour, that articulation *can* with success, and consequently *must* be taught to such deaf and dumb as once spoke; to such as, though never having spoken, have some hearing; and to such also as through great acuteness of perception can make up for want of hearing by the sense of sight and touch. The number of these pupils may amount to one-third of the whole, and sometimes

\* It has not been thought necessary in this connection to cite the opinions of the Hon. Horace Mann, who reported on European deaf-mute institutions in the year 1844, further than to say that they were in favor of the substitution of the German system for the one then and now in use in the American institutions.

His testimony is entitled to little weight from the fact that he went abroad quite unfamiliar with the workings of our system and had had no experience in the care or instruction of the deaf and dumb. It was, therefore, natural that he should fall into the many errors of judgment which render his report on this subject of little practical value.

upwards of it. The experiment ought then to be made with all during the first year; the second year such should be retained under instruction in articulation as come within the above-named categories, and they should continue daily to practice speech, having regular lessons out of the ordinary school hours, and practicing still to some extent in the common school-room, where the instructor, as often as consistent with the order of the lesson, should address such pupils in speech, and require them also to speak their answers."

In 1851 and 1852, Dr. Peet, then the respected president of the New York institution, and now the honored Nestor of our profession, made an extended tour in Europe, visiting many of the articulating schools. While sustaining the opinions of his predecessors as to the general superiority of the American schools over those of Europe, he says, in speaking of the subject of teaching deaf-mutes to speak: "On this head, I can but repeat and confirm the views expressed in the able report of the Rev. George E. Day, made to the board seven years ago."

Ten years later, Professor Day, at the instance of the directors of the New York institution, made a second examination of schools where articulation was extensively taught, and in his report he says: "A certain portion of deaf-mutes may, with sufficient expenditure of time and labor, be taught, with more or less advantage, to articulate mechanically and to read from the lips. This class consists of semi-mutes, mutes who became deaf after having once learned to speak, and now and then those who possess special aptitude, mentally and physically, for this kind of instruction."

"While the teaching of articulation and the labial alphabet should be confined to the proportionally small number of so-called deaf-mutes who are specially qualified to receive it, no pains on the other hand should be spared in faithfully laboring to teach this peculiar class to speak and read upon the lips. Experience shows, within the limits which have been described, its feasibility. Every consideration of justice and humanity requires that the means should be used with the most steady and conscientious diligence. If the unfounded assertions and exaggerated statements of persons, who are either interested witnesses or else incompetent judges, shall have the effect of calling attention to the duty of providing special instruction in oral language for the limited number of the deaf and dumb who will surely be benefited by it, an important and desirable result will be secured."

When we consider the sources from which this strong testimony in favor of instruction in articulation is derived—that it comes from gentlemen thoroughly grounded in the principles of *de l'Épée*; from gentlemen whose sympathies are identified with the American and French methods as formerly opposed to the German; from gentlemen who have had in each case many years of practical experience in teaching the deaf and dumb—is there not reasonable ground for surprise, that in all the twenty-four years which have passed since the first of the reports cited was issued, no fair trial of this peculiar branch of deaf-mute education has ever been made in any of our regular institutions?

In this particular we are far behind the schools of the continent of Europe to-day. Professor Vaisse, true to the ideas announced twenty-four years ago, is winning in articulation as substantial success in the old institution at Paris as can be seen in the school of Heinicke at Leipsic.\*

\* The writer does not hesitate to claim that as decided and marked evidences of success in articulation are now to be met with in the Paris institution, where the groundwork of instruction is closely analogous to that of our own institutions, as in Leipsic, where the traditions

In France, in Belgium, in Italy, in Switzerland, in Russia, in Sweden, and in Denmark, articulation, as subordinate and secondary to signs, is entering into the work of deaf-mute instruction to a degree far in advance of what was found to be the case by Messrs. Weld and Day, in their tours of inspection, and at the same time the value and necessity of signs are recognized in the German schools almost without an exception.\*

The rapidly approaching harmony in Europe between the two opposing systems, indicated by the current of these events, is so admirably discussed by the Hon. Canon De Hærne, director of the royal institution for deaf-mute girls at Brussels, in his recent work on the special education of the deaf and dumb, that a translation of a few pages will, it is believed, be found interesting in this connection.

After a full review of the methods of de l'Épée and Heinicke, he writes as follows:

We see, from what precedes, that the two methods, French and German, founded on tradition, have each an unquestionable merit, and that both ought to have their respective places in the instruction of deaf-mutes. The one should by no means eliminate the other in an absolute manner; the one should not be exalted unreservedly to the detriment of the other; the recriminations which have been made and reciprocated on this score have depreciated both methods and inflicted a real injury on the progress of the instruction and on the social relations of the deaf and dumb. We unite with the professor of deaf-mutes at Madrid, M. Villabril, in exclaiming: "Let us renounce angry disputes; let us investigate facts; and let us take into account the special circumstances and conditions which present themselves in the different children attacked in any degree whatever with deaf-muteism." I will add: let us classify them as much as possible under a different régime, according to their particular dispositions and their fitness for articulation. Separation by institutions, as in Austria, or by classes, as elsewhere, when it can be effected, gives the solution of the problem which those who seek to better the lot of the deaf and dumb have long sought to solve.

In this system, we may also take into account the difference of languages, according to the difficulties which they present for articulation, and make the classification of the pupils according to this consideration; which, however, has but a secondary value, seeing that these difficulties are not insurmountable, where separation is impossible, and where, consequently, the French method must predominate in order not to sacrifice the one class of pupils to the other. We shall, nevertheless, endeavor to unite as we best can the two methods, by giving to articulation all the importance possible for deaf-mutes who can be initiated into it. This union has been wrought in several establishments, especially in Belgium, after a manner more or less favorable to the German method. The tendency to

and precepts of Heinicke bear undisputed sway. In Paris articulation is taught to all the pupils during the first year, at regular hours; while their general education proceeds as with us. After the first year only those are continued in oral exercises who evince evident capability therefor. During the whole course it is continued with these last described pupils, but as an accessory only to the main line of instruction, which continues as in the American schools.

\*The writer has received, since this paper was completed, a letter from the distinguished M. Hirsch, of Rotterdam, the tenor of which enables him now to say that "the value and necessity of signs are recognized in the German schools" *without an exception*, so far as they were examined by him in the summer of 1867.

Director Hirsch, referring to the writer's report of October 23, 1867, on European institutions, says in his letter:

"You say I assumed to be able, in the instruction of deaf-mutes, to dispense with the language of signs. Dear sir, I would be one of the first critics who would think such an idea as foolish and ridiculous as possible. 'Whence did Mr. Gallaudet derive such an opinion about me?' I asked. In order to find an answer, I examined carefully the documents that might have contained the source of the error, and I found it in the 'Journal de Gand.' A single omission, but one word, has turned the signification of my words and made them nonsense.

"In the paper mentioned you read: '*et ni l'alphabet palpable, ni la langue des signes ne peuvent s'y allier.*'

"If you will only be so kind as to put the omitted word '*artificiels*' or '*de convention*' after the word '*signes*', you will see that the next paragraph exhibits no inconsistency with myself."

M. Hirsch adds in his letter: "The same opinions, the same kind of practices as you have found at Mr. Hills, for example, is ours."

When it is remembered how strongly Mr. Hill in his latest work commends the use of natural signs, the importance of M. Hirsch's agreement with him will be properly estimated.

affinity between the two dominant methods reveals itself more openly from day to day, thanks to the numerous writings on the instruction of the deaf and dumb, to the ever-increasing facility of communications which permit us more and more to visit the different institutions and to ascertain the line of march followed in each: thanks, also, as M. Alings, teacher of the establishment at Groningen, remarks, to the spirit of the age, which no longer allows us to hide under a bushel the secrets which we believe we possess in matters of instruction. The lamentable weakness was unfortunately but too common formerly, more particularly in the specialty which concerns the deaf and dumb; a specialty which, with some instructors, was a sort of privileged industry resembling those of the guilds and corporations of a former age.

Arguing from all that precedes, especially from what has been said in this chapter, we ought to seek conciliation in separation, two terms which at first sight seem to negative each other, but which express nothing contradictory, following as they do the explanations upon which I have entered. Conciliation supposes respect for the two methods within the limits which nature assigns to each of them, according to the dispositions of the pupils whom it is under discussion to separate in the interest of their advancement, which ought to be the sole end of every method, an end which cannot be ignored without falling into the most serious troubles. It is in this way that we remain faithful to tradition, while marching along the path of progress, the two-fold rule to be observed in matters of instruction. Tradition makes known the elements of instruction; progress indicates their fairest forms. Tradition, however far back we trace the history of the education of deaf-mutes, has in all ages consecrated the use of the two great means of intellectual development, namely, artificial articulation and signs, in order to induct these unhappy beings into society. But the insufficiency of special studies and experience has not allowed us to allot its fair share to each of the systems, which have thereby presented such confusion that we have doubted of the efficacy, now of the one, now of the other, according to the medium wherein we found ourselves placed, and the dispositions of the deaf-mutes whom we had to bring up. Progress, favored by time and circumstances, tends to scatter this darkness and to demonstrate the possibility of deriving advantage from each pedagogic element, while applying it sagaciously. But we have as yet made, so to speak, but a step in this direction, often encountering on our way serious material obstacles owing to our lack of resources.

Here a vast perspective likewise opens up to ameliorations to be introduced, with the view to unity, into the subdivisions of the two principal methods; subdivisions on which we shall not be able to agree, as I hope to prove some day in another work, until we shall have decided upon the respective merits of the fundamental methods, of which special mention is made in this book. Let it suffice to have indicated the path whereon we must enter in order to attain this end, taking for our two conducting threads in this pedagogic labyrinth, tradition and progress, two laws that preside over instruction in general, and especially over that of deaf-mutes. In the sphere of classical studies, which comprise ancient languages and elementary sciences, tradition, as I have said above, has been constantly maintained, in spite of the efforts that have been made, at divers epochs, to eliminate, now the one, now the other of these two branches of human knowledge. By protecting tradition, we have at the same time followed progress, which consists in giving to each of these branches the importance it demands, according to the circumstances, dispositions, and vocations of the pupils.

With the opinion of the learned de Hærne, that a combination of the two methods of Heinicke and de l'Épée would be to the general advantage of the deaf and dumb, the writer of this paper fully coincides.

That the language of pantomime should be made the basis of all instruction of the deaf and dumb, he is equally well convinced. The solution of the articulation controversy, so far as our institutions are concerned, seems to him, therefore, an easy one. We have but to add to our system, sound as it is in theory and capable of the highest success in practice, facilities for affording instruction in speech and lip-reading for all pupils capable of profiting by it.

In each institution one or more additional teachers, of as high qualifications as the most accomplished now employed, would be required, who should give their entire time to this branch. An increased expenditure of money, it is true, would be called for; it would be desirable also that the primary course of study should be lengthened, so that no existing feature of value should be sacrificed; but it is believed the advantages gained to those capable of success would be so evident as to satisfy legislatures and the patrons generally of our institutions of the entire propriety of the outlay of time and money.

At all events, no more favorable period than the present has appeared within the past thirty years for an appeal for increased means in behalf of

our work. The public mind has been excited to an unusual degree of interest in the subject of deaf-mute education by the discussions which have taken place within the last two or three years in New England.

The opinion exists in many localities that our system is susceptible of improvement; many persons of intelligence have an impression even that it is quite behind the age. In no way can these ideas, whether they be well founded or not, be so readily eliminated from the public mind as by the introduction throughout our institutions of added means of improving our pupils.

But to return to the broad question which we have undertaken to discuss in this paper: Are there incidental defects in our system?

Do pupils fail to acquire facility in language in cases where they might acquire it?

Are deaf-mutes inclined to depend on signs and their teachers rather than on books and themselves?

Is there a deficiency of suitable text-books?

Are incompetent and unskilled teachers employed for the sake of reducing the roll of expenses?

Is the course of primary study too short?

Might infant schools or classes be established to advantage?

Is it possible to impart a useful power of articulation and lip-reading to one-third of the mass of so-called deaf-mutes?

And if, as the writer believes, all these questions must be answered in the affirmative, are not they right who think our system is susceptible of improvement? Are not they more than half right who claim that it is behind the age?

But happily for us, all these evils are readily removable. The theory of our system is irrefragable. It is founded on sound philosophy, and its cardinal points are now acknowledged even in the strongholds of its old-time enemies, while the vertebral column of Heinicke's theory "that speech is necessary to thought" has long since been deprived of its strength by the paralysis of unfavorable practical demonstration.

Our institutions may point with just pride to the record they have made of a half-century of effective useful labor in behalf of the class for whose benefit they exist. Their prestige is, however, to-day in peril. Institutions founded on opposing principles have sprung into life, and are even now boldly claiming before the world that they are more worthy of public patronage than ours; that they will do more for the deaf and dumb than we are doing; that they have a better system than we; and not a few are willing to accede to their claims. What, then, is the part of wisdom for us? To rest on the laurels of the past, and to cry innovation, charlatanism, quackery, humbug? To ignore the good that is to be found in the opposing system because of its being well-nigh hidden under a mass of impracticability? To distrust the liberality of our fellow-citizens who through their representatives have shown a cheerful readiness to respond to the claims of the unfortunate? To allow a penny-wise, pound-foolish notion of sparing expense to economize the life out of our whole work?

No! a thousand times, no! to all these damaging suggestions.

We will the rather address ourselves seriously to the task of ascertaining wherein improvements in our work are possible, and then use all means in our power to realize these improvements.

So shall we best retain the confidence of the community; so shall we best subserve the interests of those committed to our care; so shall we best discharge the grave responsibilities devolved upon us, and so shall we best obey the behests of Him who has said: "Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might."

Mr. GALLAUDET. In order to bring the subject of articulation before the conference I offer the following resolutions:

*Resolved*, That, in the opinion of this conference, it is the duty of all institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb to provide adequate means for imparting instruction in articulation and lip reading, to such of their pupils as may be able to engage with profit in exercises of this nature.

*Resolved*, That to attain success in this department of instruction an added force of instructors will be necessary, and this conference hereby recommends to boards of directors of institutions for the deaf and dumb in this country that speedy measures be taken to provide the funds needed for the prosecution of this work.

At the suggestion of the president, by unanimous consent, the report of the committee of arrangements was amended so that the paper prepared by J. H. Woods, of Illinois, be advanced from its position and be read before the consideration of these resolutions.

The sixth paper was then read by Mr. Gillett—its title, Articulation.\*

Mr. Gallaudet moved that the subject of articulation be the special order between the hours of three and six this afternoon, or so much of that time as shall be required.

The conference then took a recess till 3 o'clock.

#### THURSDAY AFTERNOON.

The conference was called to order by the president, agreeably to the adjournment, at 3 o'clock.

The president stated the topic for discussion this afternoon to be articulation.

The resolutions previously offered were read.

On motion of Rev. Mr. Turner, the students of this college were invited to attend the meetings of the conference.

#### DISCUSSION.

Mr. E. M. GALLAUDET. There are present gentlemen who have visited the articulating institution at Northampton, and I think it would be interesting to hear from them an account of what they saw, especially what they heard there.

Mr. STONE. If in order, I will offer another resolution in addition to those before the conference:

*Resolved*, That while in our judgment it is desirable to give semi-mutes and semi-deaf children every facility for retaining and improving any power of articulate speech which they may possess, it is not profitable, except in very rare cases, to attempt to teach congenital mutes articulation.

Mr. GILLETT. I would prefer that one of the other gentlemen who visited the Clarke school should make this report. I was interested in the school at Northampton, and in the results of the experiments that are being made there. I am fully persuaded that the ladies teaching there, and the gentleman who presides over the institution, are laboring with an eye single to the greatest possible benefit to the deaf and dumb, as a class; whether they are laboring upon a principle which shall be fraught with better results to that class, with whose interests all of our lives have been candidly, and I suppose in God's fear, identified, than the system which we follow, or not, time only will demonstrate. Whatever local circumstances may have existed in Massachusetts or elsewhere, except in my own immediate vicinity, I know nothing of. But when this convention was called, I received letters, I suppose in common with others, inquiring my opinion as to the expediency of it. I

\* This paper was prepared for a meeting of the teachers of the Illinois institution, was read to the conference by consent of its author, but he prefers not to have it published.



thought it important that we should have such a consultation and comparison of views as we had here yesterday, are having to-day, and shall have to-morrow. I supposed we should have a discussion on the comparative merits of the system of articulation and the system of *de l'Épée* and *Sicard*. With the method of articulation I have had little experience. When a semi-mute addresses me I usually request him to speak orally, because I comprehend my mother tongue better than I do the language of signs, having used it twice as long.

Although my experience of 17 years as an instructor of the deaf and dumb has not brought me to the high appreciation of the sign language that some enjoy, yet I have not formerly had any leaning to the method of articulation. Indeed my prejudices against it were strong, and my honest convictions were that it was a miserable piece of charlatanry, and I have not hesitated at times so to express myself on this subject. I was of the opinion that the reputed instances of success in teaching deaf-mutes articulation were cases of semi-mutes alone, and that an imposition was thus made on the public. Accordingly, about a year ago, being directed by our board of directors to give a number of exhibitions in northern Illinois, I took with me several semi-mutes, knowing that this question of articulation was attracting the attention of the intelligent of our State, and that I should have to meet it while on this tour. My purpose was to show these as representatives of a class of persons who were being passed upon the public as natural mutes who had been taught to speak and read the lips, and to explain that the semi-mutes compose a large and important as well as very interesting portion of the pupils of every deaf and dumb institution, and that any individual or institution so imposing upon the philanthropic impulses of a humane public deserved only the severest reprehension.

I had formed these opinions in pursuance of the reports on the subject made by the honorable president of this conference and others, and also in view of the experiments made at certain eastern institutions and abandoned, as I understood, as failures. Circumstances, however, unnecessary now to name, have within a few months led me to question the correctness of these views and to seek after more definite and intelligent information on the subject.

Interesting accounts of the Clarke school at Northampton, Massachusetts, have been published in most of our newspapers, and were exciting considerable interest in the State of Illinois, and particularly among the relatives and friends of deaf-mutes. I felt much curiosity and anxiety to see this institution, and accordingly wrote the superintendents of several western institutions, suggesting that we should visit that institution together on our way to this conference. Three gentlemen who are members of this conference met there last week. As far as I was able I divested myself of prejudice and visited this establishment as a candid inquirer after truth. I desired to see it under the most favorable circumstances for itself, precisely as we all like to exhibit our own institutions. It is due to the officers of that institution to say—as none of them are here present, which I exceedingly regret—that our visit was to them apparently a source of the utmost gratification, and that every facility for examining the school was cheerfully rendered.

There are twenty-one pupils in this school, of whom, if my memory serves me correctly, fourteen are natural mutes. I cannot recall all the exercises we witnessed, but the conviction has been fastened in my mind that my previous ideas of the ability of the deaf-mute to learn articulation and lip-reading have been wholly wrong. Some of the exercises and pupils I may be able to recall to mind, but as I have not expected to be called

on for such a statement, and have not at all arranged my thoughts, my statements will necessarily be quite desultory. One little boy of about eight years of age now comes to my mind, who readily understood the remarks of his teacher, as was evinced by a quick performance of all directions given him, such as "walk on the floor softly," "run up stairs quick," "come to me," "walk to the large door slowly," "come fast." This child was a natural mute, and in communicating with him the teacher used no signs. Another exercise was with the youngest pupils in the school, numbering perhaps half a dozen. This consisted in exercising these children upon the powers of the letters of the alphabet, and I suppose this is the first lesson in which the pupils of this school are drilled. It was new to me, but impressed me as being philosophical, and the skill in uttering the appropriate sounds of the letters which these children had acquired was quite wonderful, as it then seemed to me. Words such as man, boy, large, open, woman, walk, were given these children to spell by articulate sounds, which in most cases was correctly done. The names of the letters were not called, but the powers of each letter in the word were uttered. Some of these children, I think, were semi-mutes.

Another exercise was with two lads, semi-mutes, in lip-reading, in which a grammar lesson was taught, and a story entirely new was read by the teacher, and most of it understood by the youths from the labial movements alone. Some words required repetition, among which I remember was the word "ill;" this word was fully comprehended only with some difficulty. It was used in a sense new to them. The teacher and pupils at this time were on opposite sides of the room.

The most interesting, and to me the most striking case which we saw at the Clarke school, was Miss Teresa Dudley, whom my friend Mr. Stone has known for some years, as she has been a pupil of the American Asylum. This girl is a natural mute, and obviously has enjoyed valuable early instruction, and the advantages of refined society. She has been at the Clarke school six months, and already is able to engage in intelligent oral conversation. Much of her intelligence, it is true, is doubtless due to the instruction received at Hartford. But the fact is established that she can be taught to speak. I was particularly interested in an oral conversation between her and a fellow pupil during the evening, in which no use was made of signs or the manual alphabet. The young man with whom she was conversing was a semi-mute. The remarks of both of them were clearly intelligible to any one in the room. The conversation was upon miscellaneous subjects, and well sustained on all. I conversed frequently with Miss Dudley on various topics, and found she quite readily read my lips and replied in a distinct though not rapid utterance.

A point that impressed me particularly was that these children might be taught to understand when not standing in the most favorable position possible.

I saw one class of twelve exercised in numbers. No one saw another at the front, but all at the side, and they easily understood each other.

MR. STONE. Was it not counting? They might keep the number easily if so.

MR. GILLETT. That species of deception might be carried on, perhaps, but I do not think there was any disposition to deceive.

MR. STONE. There may have been no deception intended, but it is easy to keep the count.

MR. GILLETT. The arrangement of these pupils in the class was such that they could see the lips of other members of the class only from the side.

Since my visit to the Clarke school my mind has been quite unsettled

on this subject. It is becoming somewhat annoying to me because I am not able to see clearly what course it is most expedient to pursue. The introduction of articulation into our institutions seems to involve a very considerable change in their organizations. I do not as yet clearly perceive whether that system should be united with ours, or whether deaf-mutes susceptible of instruction by this method should be placed in entirely separate institutions; nor do I yet see whether it will be wise to encourage the adoption of the method of articulation at all. On these points I now have no settled convictions, but am seeking knowledge.

The PRESIDENT. What we want is your views from what you saw. Did you hear the pupils read?

Mr. GILLETT. Yes, sir.

The PRESIDENT. Did you understand what they read?

Mr. GILLETT. Yes, sir; I understood perfectly. I gave them one of your books, which happened to be lying on the table; and turning to any point in the book the pupil read correctly, and so distinctly that I readily understood. This was Miss Dudley.

The PRESIDENT. How many did you hear read?

Mr. GILLETT. I did not keep count of the number.

The PRESIDENT. How long were you there?

Mr. GILLETT. About a day and a half.

Mr. STONE. I wish we might know how many read. Did you hear five or six in miscellaneous reading?

Mr. GILLETT. There were some semi-mutes reading, but I did not propose to speak of them.

Mr. STONE. This is an important point. How many congenital mutes could read? As a general rule none are received who lost their hearing under the age of four and a half years.

Mr. KERR. Were some of these who read born deaf?

Mr. GILLETT. About half were born deaf, I think.

Mr. TALBOT. I spent less time at that institution than Dr. Milligan or Mr. Gillett; but I saw and heard enough while there to satisfy me that I had labored, as Mr. Gillett says he did, under a good deal of a mistake in regard to the practicability of teaching articulation to deaf and dumb persons. I had supposed, from the literature of the profession, and from my own observation in its practice, that persons who were born deaf could not be expected to learn to articulate. In that I found I was mistaken; that is, that there are at least some, and perhaps a good many, exceptional cases to that rule. I base this change of opinion not simply upon the performances of Miss Dudley, who is certainly a remarkable case of articulation, whether she got her instruction at home, at the Clarke Institution, or at the American Asylum, but I base it further on the performances of the younger children who had been there so little time. The exercise in counting was a satisfactory one to me, as to the power of the children to learn lip-reading easily. Not a single child was in front of another, and they did not see each other's lips in front, but they showed themselves very skilful in catching up the proper number when the counting was stopped.

Mr. STONE. Were the numbers in regular order?

Mr. TALBOT. No, sir; they skipped about.

Mr. GILLETT. The teacher would tell them to go on and give the number.

Mr. GALLAUDET. That was a specimen of lip-reading, then.

Mr. TALBOT. The teacher did not prompt, except in one or two cases. I was going to speak of the vocalization exercise, by which I mean the giving of the elementary sounds, which they did from charts used in the

public schools of Massachusetts, and from the little observation I have given to that subject I should say that these children vocalized, gave the power of consonants, vowels, and diphthongs fully as well as children in our speaking schools do.

This may seem a little too strong a statement, but that was the impression made on my mind. I have heard children in common schools practicing on the same tables, and never heard them do better than a part of the children in Northampton. They went through all the sounds of the letters.

But I apprehend, Mr. President, that the point which we, as practical teachers of the deaf and dumb, want to reach, is not yet settled. We may go there to the Clarke Institution and see one and another, and perhaps all of them, go through these wonders in vocal gymnastics, as we might call them, and yet it might be true that it would be but a parrot operation, the imitation of sound. The question at which my mind labors and which we cannot now settle except on theory and on the known experience of institutions in the past, is this—whether all this instruction in articulation will prove in the end any more profitable than the instruction as we give it by the American system. Now, I say that we who went to Northampton cannot answer that question for you any better than you can for yourselves. And there I think we need to see the experiment fairly tried. If those teachers, communicating, as they claim, simply by the lips, are able to teach language faster than we can by using signs for communication, then they are right, and we are wrong. But I suppose we are none of us ready to admit that. I am not, because they have not tested it thoroughly enough. Nor do I think they themselves think they have tested it enough. Mr Hubbard and other teachers expressed themselves as trying an experiment to see if they could find a better way. As far as I could judge, they did not feel any hostility to our institutions as such, nor to the men who manage them. Therefore, the result of the visit, so far as I am concerned, is yet unsatisfactory and unsettled. We found certain wonders in the matter of articulation which overthrew my previous ideas on that point. But I do not feel satisfied that they can teach any better, any faster, or any more satisfactorily than we can.

The PRESIDENT. Without intending to cross-examine you, I think it would be satisfactory to the conference to learn what was actually accomplished, irrespective of any views you might entertain before you went there. In the first place when you went into the room you saw a number of persons. What was the first exercise when you got there? Was it a question which was propounded by the teacher to the pupils?

Mr TALBOT. I do not recollect distinctly. As I entered the yard with the other gentlemen the most of the children were out of doors at play; and as we went into the school-room they were called in. Some of the little pupils were in the school-room when we went in. The first exercise that I distinctly remember was an exercise of the youngest children giving the proper sounds and force of the consonants.

The PRESIDENT. The elementary sounds?

Mr. TALBOT. Yes, sir, of the consonants.

The PRESIDENT. Were they directed to do this by the teacher?

Mr. TALBOT. Yes, sir.

The PRESIDENT. From her voice?

Mr. TALBOT. She told them by speaking, without any sign whatever.

Mr. STONE. Did not she point to a card?

Mr. TALBOT. Yes, sir; when they gave the sounds.

Mr. STONE. Did not she call attention to the words?

Mr. TALBOT. She pointed to the letters.

The PRESIDENT. Did she go further and point to words and syllables?

Mr. TALBOT. Yes, sir; she wrote out words on the black-board and required the pupils to repeat them in concert, and then singly.

The PRESIDENT. Was their utterance intelligible?

Mr. TALBOT. It was; from some of them perfectly, from some less so. But if my eyes were closed I could have made out what was written from the sounds.

The PRESIDENT. Did you hear any exercise where words were in combination—sentences, or short expressions?

Mr. TALBOT. Yes, sir; there was a short sentence written out upon the board.

The PRESIDENT. Did you hear any read from a printed book or card?

Mr. TALBOT. None, except Miss Dudley.

Mr. TURNER. She learned at the American asylum, did she not?

Mr. TALBOT. I suppose she did.

Mr. TURNER. Did Miss Dudley read words from a book which you had not previously seen, and read so that you could understand?

Mr. TALBOT. Yes, sir.

Mr. I. L. PEET. I have visited many of the institutions abroad in which articulation was the basis of instruction. I have also seen in this country many persons who have received their education in such institutions. When subjecting them to this test reading I have found that when I followed the text with my eye it was almost always easy to recognize the correspondence of the spoken with the printed words. In many cases, however, when I did not see the text, nor glance over it so as to discover its tenor, I could hardly catch a single word.

Mr. TALBOT. I did not test it very thoroughly. The only test I gave was, I opened a book and handed it to her and asked her to read for me. My eye was on the top of the paragraph, and I heard her read that, and then what I had not seen; and I understood the latter part as well as the former.

Mr. STONE. You got the connection, perhaps?

Mr. TALBOT. That may all be; I am not here to be a special pleader for any one.

The PRESIDENT. What we want is the facts. If Miss Dudley could take a book and read the words embodied in a sentence so that you could understand, it would be a very satisfactory test.

Mr. TALBOT. Her articulation was quite intelligible, although it was labored. She had to work hard in trying to make some of the combinations that were necessary, but I found we could understand what she said better than she could understand what we said. I sat down and conversed with her, and she would repeat what I said to her. Sometimes she would fail to catch my words. The fault, however, was probably not hers, but mine. When the teacher repeated the word to her she understood it perfectly.

The PRESIDENT. Did you hear different individuals of the school converse?

Mr. TALBOT. I heard no conversation in the school except Miss Dudley's.

Mr. KERR. Permit me to ask you if your visit there was for the purpose of ascertaining how much those children could express of spoken words?

Mr. TALBOT. It was.

Mr. KERR. Then I understand your visit was unsatisfactory.

Mr. TALBOT. It was as to the settlement of the question of their advancing faster by that system than by our system.

Dr. MILLIGAN. I do not know that I can say anything in addition to what has already been said. It is difficult for any person to knock over all the work of years; even though he has been laboring to build a cob-house, it makes him feel distressed to see it fall. I do not mean to say that our teaching has been of the cob-house order. I went to Northampton, not believing, for physiological reasons, that those who had no auditory nerve could ever learn to speak and articulate; and it is not pleasant to me to find out that they can. (Laughter.) I am willing to say that, I am disappointed; but it is so, that they do talk. We cannot get around it, and we have got to put up with it, for they won't stop talking for all our resolutions.

The PRESIDENT. Is that just what we want, sir?

Dr. MILLIGAN. When we went into the school-room, the smaller ones were called in. The teacher, Miss Rogers, arranged them in a row on one side of the room. On one side of the room was one of the Boston common school charts, with the letters arranged according to their sounds. She with a pointer pointed to those letters, and they in unison pronounced them. And after they had gone down a column or two she took each one separately and pointed to those characters, and they pronounced them. Once in a while she would come to a pupil who could not pronounce a particular sound, and she would stand before the pupil and shape her organs of articulation as we would to pronounce it, but making no noise; and the children, after looking at her from the opposite side of the room, would make that sound. Then she took other charts that had words printed on them, and as she pointed to the words they would pronounce them. Sometimes they would fail and she would point to the word again and then they would pronounce it correctly.

The PRESIDENT. Were they monosyllables?

Dr. MILLIGAN. Not all of them. Then she took a class that entered last October, and they pronounced such words as "man," "house," &c. They were also exercised in counting. One would count a dozen or half-a-dozen; then she would point to another, five or six distant from the first, and he would take it up where the other left off; and then she would point to another; skipping around in the class. I do not know how many of them were congenital mutes, but my impression is that rather more than half of the youngest class were congenital mutes. But there was another class that came from Chelmsford which had another teacher; this teacher wrote a sentence on the slate and then pointed to the words, and the class, singly, and afterwards in unison, pronounced the words "please bring me a large book; please bring me a slate." Afterwards she said "George, do" so and so, and "Sarah, do" so and so; and the person called upon did as told to do. Then she would tell them by words, not speaking aloud as I speak now, and sometimes not even whispering, but merely making the shape of the words with her lips, and the child would do as she was told to do. One was told to put a book on the stairs; another was told to go and put something on the book. While the teacher was standing by the slate, without making any noise, when the child was on the stairway, twenty-five feet off, the child would do whatever she told it to do—the teacher merely moving the lips, without even whispering.

The PRESIDENT. Was this a child that entered last September?

Dr. MILLIGAN. No, sir; one that came from Chelmsford.

Mr. GILLET. "Please go out doors and bring me some grass," was one direction.

Mr. STONE. Was that a new direction?

Mr. GILLET. I think it was an old direction.

Mr. STONE. The same thing had been told him, I presume, forty times.

A MEMBER. Did they understand those directions?

Mr. GILLET. Yes, sir; I do not think anything was said or written that was not perfectly understood by those addressed.

A MEMBER. Were those directions given to congenital mutes?

Mr. GILLET. Yes; the directions were given to congenital mutes.

The PRESIDENT. Did you (to Dr. Milligan) hold any conversation with any one of those pupils as you would with any little child?

Dr. MILLIGAN. While we were there a menagerie passed by, and the pupils were allowed to go out. And I asked various questions about the menagerie to such of the pupils as happened to be nearest. It was something that came up on the moment.

The PRESIDENT. You propounded the question to the child vocally, and the child answered you?

Dr. MILLIGAN. Yes, sir; many such questions. There was one of these who was a young man fifteen or sixteen years of age—Roscoe Greene.

Mr. TURNER. He lost his hearing at seven and a half.

Dr. MILLIGAN. The teacher was sitting down at some distance, and she was reading the physical geography lesson. She would read along two or three verses, and then she would come to a word that she did not pronounce distinctly, and he (Greene) would stop her; and she would pronounce it again, and then go on. That was a mere specimen of lip reading.

Dr. GALLAUDET of New York. Did you have means of noticing the children when they were together? Did they use signs or use their lips?

Dr. MILLIGAN. I saw the children playing, and they had signs which I did not understand. These signs were mostly natural gestures, and consisted of pointing towards objects or some other equally obvious sign. I heard one say "I can't speak that name;" and she asked her mother to pronounce it for her. The word was "hedge." After several attempts to speak it by imitating the motions of another person's lips, she achieved the correct pronunciation.

Rev. Mr. TURNER. In regard to the paper of Mr. Gallaudet, which was read this morning, I differ very little from him as to the positions which he took and sustained so well. In fact, I approve in the main of the sentiments which he advanced. I think it an able paper, and am glad that one able paper, without disparagement to the rest, will go forth from this convention—one which I think important to go before the public. But we can all criticise better than we can originate. There are only one or two things that I would speak of. One is in regard to the point which Mr. Gallaudet made respecting the imperfect knowledge of language acquired by our students. I admit the fact of all that he said in that respect. What I claim is, that the time allowed us by the patrons and friends of the deaf and dumb is not sufficient to accomplish the thing which he desired to have accomplished; that is, the ability to use language perfectly in the expression of thought. That is the very last attainment which pupils make in any school. I would like to have the students who graduate from Yale college brought forward to translate a story in good Latin; I would like to see them express any given sentence in good Latin; and I would like to have a professor tell us how many in a class are able to write Latin correctly on common subjects. You may

take a class from this institution that will reproduce a story in as good English, as the students of Yale college will in Latin. That does not remove the difficulty; it only shows that there is a difficulty to be overcome by any person who has a foreign language to acquire, and ours is a foreign language to the deaf and dumb; and they are expected to acquire that foreign language in five or six years so as to be able at all times and on all subjects to use that language with perfect accuracy.

How is it with intelligent foreigners? A Frenchman, after having been here some years, will make barks, as we say; he will show that he is a Frenchman by the imperfectness with which he uses our language. These same things manifest themselves in the deaf and dumb. But when we have shown that for all the purposes of intercommunication, for the writing of letters to their friends, and for all the practical purposes of life, they do use the language with so much correctness as to make themselves understood, and to put themselves in perfect communication with others around them, we have shown that the great object has been attained. They are not finished scholars; they cannot use language as we, who have had a collegiate or an academic education, can. I consider that not so much a defect of our system as one of the intrinsic difficulties growing out of the nature of the subject, and that exists not only in the case of the deaf and dumb, but in the case of foreigners, and those who have nothing but a common school education in the country; set them to writing, and we see that they make mistakes. There is a want of a perfect, finished culture.

In regard to the subject of dactylology I think it is used too little in our schools, and that we use signs too much. I know when we had meetings of the deaf and dumb with their teachers, where the conversation was required to be carried on by spelling, they soon became irksome and were discontinued; the signs were so much easier and more agreeable. I think as Mr. Gallaudet's father did, that if the language of signs is not the best language for all on earth, it may be the language that will be used by all in heaven. Everybody can understand that language; it is a universal language; but we may not be able to understand Arabic when we get there. There is a play, a naturalness, a lifelike expressiveness about the language of signs, that makes it superior to any other language. However, what was said on that subject by Mr. Gallaudet is very important. Teachers cannot be urged too much to use dactylology in the school-room, and especially to do as my friend, Mr. Stone, does; when a pupil comes to his office to ask for anything; he requires him to spell out the request. It is a very important point for a teacher to carry out.

Then, in regard to incompetent teachers; they are not worth much anywhere. Yet I think our profession has gone quite as clear of them as any other department of education. So far as my observation goes, I have generally found that the teachers of the deaf and dumb understood their business well; that there are and have been intelligent gentlemen at the heads of these institutions. I attribute whatever of success I may have had to the fact that I came under the instruction of one so competent to qualify teachers as was the father of the gentleman who presides over this institution.

Another point which Mr. Gallaudet made I think was well sustained; that is, the practice of explaining to death the lessons beforehand which we give out to our pupils. I think that a very great fault. The children should be taught self-reliance very early, and they should be constrained as soon as possible to gather the meaning of a word from the dictionary. They should be obliged to find out the meaning of words, and they should



have the meaning given by a synonym rather than by spelling it out. In that respect I think there is an improvement beyond what existed when I commenced instruction. When we had no text-book except a little vocabulary, we were required to make a small dictionary. I made one containing 3,000 words, and we would take these new words and write down a dozen on a slate beginning with the letter A, and so on; and we would give the exact meaning, word after word down the column, and explain them by signs. And we would say to the children, take your pencil and a blank paper and copy them, and to-night you are to commit them to memory; and then in the morning you are to give the signs for the words. We explained the dictionary through, and that was the exercise for two or three years perhaps every other evening. The definitions were given by signs in all cases.

As to articulation, the omission of the teaching of that is regarded as a defect by Mr. Gallaudet. After Mr. Weld returned from Europe he commenced a course, with the sanction of our directors of regular instruction, in articulation every day with those who could hear some, and those who could speak a little, and they were portioned out to the hearing teachers. I took all in my class, and those of another class whose teacher was a mute, and I spent twenty minutes each day in articulating, making these children speak to me and speaking to them, hearing what they said and correcting their enunciation; the time being spent diligently in teaching and improving their articulation. That was done for years in our institution.

When I became principal, in 1853, after the death of Mr. Weld, I took a step in advance. I employed a teacher, an intelligent young lady, who gave daily lessons to all in our institution that could speak and hear a little, and to some congenital deaf-mutes who had a little aptness at speaking, and she accomplished a good deal with some of them in her class. I beg the president of this institution to call up young Greene, one of his own college boys, who was born deaf and taught by her, that all may see that the American system has accomplished something in teaching even the congenitally deaf to speak.

[The young man, Samuel Greene, was accordingly called to the platform.]

Mr. Turner put several questions to him by the motion of his lips, barely uttering aloud the words, but with careful precision in the use of the vocal organs, so that the young man could read from the lips.]

MR. TURNER. Question. How old are you?

Answer. I am 24 years old.

Q. What is your name?

A. Samuel.

Q. How old were you when you came to the asylum?

A. Twelve.

Q. Are you pretty well? (whispered.)

A. I am very well.

Q. How many years were you taught articulation?

[This question was repeated.]

A. Two and a half years.

MR. TURNER. This shows that it is not quite correct to say no fair experiment has been made, as Mr. Gallaudet said. The experiment was made so as to satisfy me of two things: First, there are many congenital deaf-mutes who can be taught to utter a few plain simple words, especially those whose enunciation is marked and sharp. And second, a few who have some considerable voice, and who are accustomed to make noises, may be taught to use that voice for the enunciation of words and sentences.

But, Mr. President and gentlemen, I do believe that the time spent in communicating articulation to congenital deaf-mutes is almost time wasted. This young man states that he was there two years and a half taking a lesson of a quarter of an hour, and sometimes more, three times in a week, and you see what acquirements he has made; I therefore come to this conclusion, that in the case of most congenital deaf-mutes the time spent does not pay for the acquisition.

In respect to the case of Miss Dudley, although I never heard her speak, I know that she is a congenital deaf-mute. She came to the American asylum as a pupil at the age of nine. When four years of age the parents brought her to Hartford for the purpose of ascertaining why she had never spoken; the mother would not believe she was deaf. I therefore took a large music box which I had and placed it in a position so that I could set it agoing, having first called her attention to it, I then requested her to look at something out of the window, and when I set the box agoing she took no notice of it. I whistled very loud in a key close to her ear when she did not see me, and she paid no attention to it. I told the mother her daughter was deaf. She was very much distressed, under the conviction that she had a deaf and dumb child. I told her that a dumb child must be either deaf or an idiot, and that I would much rather she should be deaf than to be deprived of her intellect. I then showed her the intelligent children around us, and how much they could do. At a proper time she was sent to the institution, and remained there about two years. She was a very intelligent child, and made very uncommon attainments.

Mr. STONE. She was able to write a very pretty letter when she came to the institution, having been taught by her mother, and by an educated deaf-mute. She could express her own thoughts by writing very well.

Dr. MILLIGAN. The triumph of Miss Dudley is one of lip reading and articulating.

Mr. TURNER. This articulation she has acquired within a year, and very likely in a few years more she will be able to speak with facility. I think it is a remarkable case and one in which we must admit the success of efforts in that direction. We have no doubt that this girl, congenitally deaf, has learned to articulate. I think if Samuel Greene had been taken when seven years old and persevering efforts had then been made with him by an intelligent person, he might have been taught to articulate.

Mr. GALLAUDET. I would ask a question with regard to Greene. He has been taught articulation at Hartford, about half an hour a week, or perhaps 40 hours in a year, or 100 hours in the two years and a half; which would be, at five hours a day, teaching 20 days. He has had 20 days, instruction in articulation, and you hear how well he speaks. I cannot but feel, with all deference to the officers of the Hartford institution, that a young man with such capabilities as Greene is seen to possess has not had a fair trial when he has had only 20 days in eight or nine years. And I shall go further and say that I have taught him new words; I have taught him to speak and to understand from the lips. And my experience in experimenting with congenital mutes in lip reading has satisfied me that if he had had one entire day in a week, during his course in Hartford, he would be able to read from the lips of others as well as any congenital mute could be expected to do. Mrs. Denison, who is a congenital mute, understands readily what is said by the lips. I believe if such as they could have had a regular stated hour a day, or a little more, through a course of seven years, in the practice of articulation and lip reading, they would have acquired all the facility they could

be expected to under any circumstances. A friend has handed me an accurate computation of the time that Greene was instructed, and he makes it 13 days only.

Mr. PEET. How many pupils could a single teacher instruct in a day of five hours, giving each pupil an hour a day?

Mr. GALLAUDET. I do not think it would be necessary to give each pupil an hour a day. I think each teacher could teach ten pupils, and teach them well. Fifty pupils would thus come under his instruction every day. I saw in the European schools that ten pupils could be very well taught at once. They would sit so that each could see all the others; and not only the teacher could then correct any one who made mistakes, but the pupils could correct each other. I should consider that each of the ten would have the benefit of an hour's instruction.

Mr. PEET. That is just the point that I wished to have answered.

The PRESIDENT. I wish to inquire if you ever saw a teacher giving individual instruction to a person in the elementary steps in the first instance.

Mr. GALLAUDET. I do not know that I understand your question.

The PRESIDENT. Whether, in a class of ten pupils, the teacher taught them individually or as a whole?

Mr. GALLAUDET. As a whole, generally; but I saw, many times, corrections made, or the teacher would address himself to a single individual.

Mr. TURNER. I wish to know how many hours you spent in learning German, so as to enable you to bring home this information to us.

Mr. GALLAUDET. I devoted myself to the study of German one week. I had my teacher two hours a day, and then occupied myself in studying the remainder of the time.

Mr. TURNER. It is immaterial; I simply wanted to intimate that while Samuel Greene was receiving instruction with several others daily, he had also the privilege of the instruction of his teacher speaking to him occasionally. I admit that, if we had taken him up alone and given him a teacher he would have made greater progress.

We never have made articulation a prominent part of the regular system of instruction. This came in by-the-by. We thought we ought to do it, so as to preserve the speech of some who could speak.

If I were to teach articulation, I think it would be an advantage to use signs so as to give the pupils an idea of the meaning of words before I commenced the teaching by articulation, so that when we came to teach them short sentences they would understand their meaning by having learned the meaning of colloquial phrases. I think that was an advantage to Miss Dudley. I believe the teachers at Northampton have commenced at the wrong end, and that dactylology and signs, instead of being a hindrance, would, if properly used, be decidedly advantageous.

In connection with the subject of incompetent teachers, Mr. Gallaudet said there was needed a graded course of books. I have some doubt whether it is best to have any book prepared especially for the deaf and dumb, after the elementary book. But as soon as we can we should get our pupils into the use of books that are made for hearing children in the language others use. Take, for instance, Hillard's First Reader, a book which I think admirably adapted to the young, admirably contrived to call out the ingenuity of the teacher and the intellect of the pupils. As soon as we can put books into the hands of the pupils—not those written in a hard and intricate style, but those written in a clear, simple style, such as is adapted to the capacity of other children—I think it best to put such books into the hands of the deaf and dumb, and let them

study to comprehend them just as other children do. I do not believe in forming a set of readers, histories, and geographies adapted especially to the deaf and dumb. If this were done, it would keep them on a style very different from that which everybody must use to get a full comprehension of the English language.

Another objection to signs in the paper was, that they do not restore the deaf and dumb to society. Whoever supposed they did? We do not imagine that society will ever give itself to learning signs for the purpose of communicating with the deaf and dumb. But signs we use as a means to an end, as a means of teaching deaf-mutes the English language, and by the aid of dactylology and the pencil they are thus brought into communication with society. We claim that the ability to converse by writing or by spelling is an important acquisition, and I think it is a pity that everybody is not taught the alphabet of the deaf and dumb. We have as much right to demand that hearing persons shall be taught to spell with the fingers, so that they can communicate with the deaf and dumb in their way, as that the deaf and dumb shall be required to speak.

I have recently been called to stand by the bedside of my brother-in-law and see him pass away; and when he was so far gone that he could not articulate, he could spell with his fingers so as to make known clearly his last wishes and his last wants. It may be of use to any man in certain circumstances to know how to use dactylology. He may meet with an accident, or have a disease which may render him unable to speak, but which would not prevent his communicating with his fingers; or it may be of use to others, as it was in the case of that woman who, when a burglar demanded money, and told her, as he hid in a closet, if she made any disclosure he would surely kill her, spelled with her fingers to her husband, on his coming in, that there was a thief in the closet. So the husband obtained help and secured the burglar. I say there may be circumstances when every man will need to know it. Let us demand that every child in the common schools shall learn this alphabet. The signs that we use are not the means of bringing the deaf and dumb into society; but if all other persons would take the trouble to learn dactylology then the deaf and dumb would be in easy communication with them.

Miss Dudley does not speak as rapidly as we can speak on our fingers, or as we can write with a pencil. That will be a difficulty when deaf-mutes learn to articulate; they will often require to have what is said to them repeated, and others may not understand them at once; so that more time will be taken up than would be required by writing or spelling with the fingers.

Mr. MACINTIRE. Will Mr. Turner give his views as to the best way in which this plan can be engrafted on our present system?

Mr. TURNER. I will go further than some would deem advisable. I went further when I employed a teacher, whose sole duty was to teach articulation. I would go further still now. I would have a teacher who should teach by articulation the pupils committed to his care, and I should prefer to have a man. I understand Miss Rogers is almost entirely exhausted with her efforts, and feels that she cannot go much further with this terrible strain on her vocal organs. I would take all the semi-mutes, perhaps not the first year, but all in the second year, and put them into a class by themselves, under the care of this hearing and speaking teacher. I would say to him you have a class of 12 or more to be taught by articulation. Examine and see what their capacity for using language is; make two or three divisions, and give them their text

books. Let those least advanced begin with simple geography; let them get their lessons and recite orally, and make your explanations orally; using signs when you cannot make them understand you without. Then form those who have made more progress into a class in history; give them a text book somewhat more elevated in style. Then another class in physiology or physical geography, and require them all to study and be prepared to recite a lesson every day—one division at 9, the next at 10 and the next at 11. Have them recite orally; ask them questions orally, helping out by signs if necessary; and let them all answer in articulate language. I would prosecute this course till they were able to enter the high class. In addition to this, I would have a female teacher in the large institutions, who should take the semi-mutes from each new class when it commences, and those among the congenitally deaf who could be made to articulate after a fair trial, and give them instruction orally in several divisions; let her employ the whole time of school hours in that way for the first two years, the class to be then handed over to the male teacher. That has occurred to me as a judicious plan, not for the first time to-day, but a long time ago. If we should adopt such a plan I think we would satisfy the clamor which has been raised against our system of instruction, causeless and unreasonable for the most part, and yet to be listened to so far as it is of any importance.

I remember that in the course of my experience mothers have brought children to me who could speak a little, very imperfectly indeed, but could make their wants known to them; and they, by mouthing and shouting, could make themselves understood. And I have heard them say, To you we commit our children; and if they lose the little ability to speak they now have while with you, we would rather they had never seen the institution, even though they get a good education through the help of signs. I have heard it so often that I have been deeply impressed with the importance of at least saving to those pupils the articulation which they have, and which their friends prize so highly.

MR. MACINTIRE. Would you advise the instruction of semi-mutes at all by signs?

MR. TURNER. No; except in the chapel service.

MR. MACINTIRE. Why not send them to the common schools?

MR. TURNER. Because their teachers will not have patience to teach them, being obliged to talk with them individually, and seeing how it takes up the time of the school. Children have come to our institution who could hear better than Professor Porter, on account of the complaints of the parents that the teachers in their common schools had no patience with them.

THE PRESIDENT. As a criticism has been made, at some length, on the paper presented by President Gallaudet, it seems proper that the resolutions should be considered in a more formal way. If they are considered properly, they would embrace the ideas suggested by Mr. Gallaudet.

[The first resolution offered by Mr. Gallaudet was read.]

MR. STONE. There are many points in this general subject to which I would like to allude. I will confine myself, however, to the resolution. I listened with great pleasure to the paper of Mr. Gallaudet, to most of which I heartily respond. We all agree that this question is one of importance. Every teacher of the deaf and dumb allows that there are some mutes who should be taught to speak. Every teacher, on the other hand, allows that some of this class cannot be taught oral language profitably. Now the great question is, what proportion can be thus taught? How shall we get at the numbers in each class respectively? I have no

idea whatever that the line runs between those that are congenitally deaf and those that lose their hearing at four or five years of age. Some children have lost hearing at five or six, and are dull and have little perception. The labor of oral instruction is certainly lost on that class. Some children are sharp, with retentive memories; in some the voice is so unpleasant that you find, after a time, it is not profitable to continue to teach them. My position is just this: I wish to be instructed. I have no special theory to advocate. In my judgment, and upon this I insist, this experiment has been fairly, fully, and faithfully tried. Has it, or has it not? Has not this matter of teaching deaf-mutes to articulate been fairly tested? And what do the gentlemen say who have tried it? Their testimony, whatever it is, is of great importance and is reliable, and should affect our judgment materially. Do they say, after trial, that in their judgment all deaf-mutes, or a considerable portion of them, can profitably be taught to articulate—those old English veterans Anderson and Baker and Watson, who have taught articulation for so many years? At first they had faith in this system. They considered this the best—in fact, the only way of teaching deaf-mutes. But after long and patient trial they have come to the conclusion that only semi-mutes and semi-deaf can be profitably taught. Now what shall we do with the experience and testimony of these able men? How shall we dispose of it? We cannot deny it; it is vain to ignore it; and unless we do one or the other we may fairly regard the question as settled, and save ourselves the trouble and mortification of repeating a tedious and profitless experiment. It may be that Yankees are sharper than Englishmen. I would give all credit to the efforts at Northampton; they have a great deal of faith, but I do not believe they will come out at a much higher point than others who have travelled the same path. I am glad to hear the testimony of these gentlemen who went to Northampton. One thing is very certain, their previous impressions were very different from mine. It seems they thought congenital deaf-mutes could not be taught to speak words at all. They seem to have forgotten that parrots can be taught to speak words and even sentences. I know many deaf-mutes can be taught to do this; the question is, how many can be taught to speak so intelligibly as to make it pay. In my judgment, spending weeks and months and only acquiring a few set words and phrases is not a fair return for the labor expended. We wish to know the proportion on whom these labors can be spent profitably. It is very small. And setting theories and theorists aside, I claim that every fair experiment yet made in this or any other country in the English language shows it to be so. The result of my observation in visiting the schools that these gentlemen visited was somewhat different. I visited the school in Chelmsford. Miss Rogers was teaching there with great enthusiasm. The general impression from that visit, most freely expressed by the gentlemen who accompanied me, was that though the pupils could understand their teachers, yet strangers could not understand them. If we had not been told what they were about to speak, in many instances we could not have guessed what it was. When they came to language, they had given them these simple sentences, on which they had practiced every day: "Shut the door;" "Go to the door;" "Go to the stove." These children have now been longer under instruction, and have doubtless made progress. It seems to me that what they have acquired may have cost more than it is worth, and that in mental development and culture they are far behind what they would have been if taught by a different method.

Miss. Dudley is an exceptional case. No institution can give a child the instruction she has received. She has an active, brilliant mind, and

her mother, a highly cultivated lady, has devoted herself most successfully to her education. Part of the time she has had a private instructress. When she came to the asylum, at the age of nine years, she could write letters, using the simpler forms of language, correctly. During her two years of instruction there she made rapid progress; and when she left, she had a good use of language in its common forms of construction. She was familiar also with most words in common use. When she began to articulate she had to learn, not the meaning of words, but how to enunciate them. Thus far her knowledge of language has been acquired mostly by signs and dactylology, and not by articulation, and she is now rapidly acquiring the ability to communicate by speech. Miss Dudley is a beautiful example of the cases, in my judgment rare, in which the two methods may be properly combined. It is perfectly idle, however, as every fair-minded person must acknowledge, to adduce her case as an example of the success of instruction by means of articulation, or to argue from it with regard to the best method of teaching ordinary pupils.

To one point I wish to direct special attention. These instances of success in educating deaf-mutes by articulation, of which we hear so much, are almost without exception in a foreign language; they are not in our own. We do not hear of any great success in the English institutions. It is universally outside testimony. Our friends in Paris swing from one side to the other of this question, now warmly favoring articulation, now in a great measure disusing it. I was impressed with Professor Day's experiment there. While in the class taught by M. Dubois, the most distinguished teacher of articulation in the Paris institution, he took an incident from a paper and requested the teacher to give it to the pupils for them to reproduce in writing. It was almost an entire failure. Now this is a fair experiment. If you take an item of news—a telegraphic item for instance—and give it to a class by the lips, and they can reproduce it correctly in written language, it will be a satisfactory test of their ability to communicate in this way. Teaching articulation in the English language is allowed by all who have tried it to be a very exhaustive work. I fully agree that semi-mutes should have careful and continued instruction in vocal speech. It is what we give continually. I have adopted the method of putting such pupils under the care of a hearing and speaking teacher, and holding with them constant oral communication. It is better than giving instruction 10 or 15 minutes at a time. I think we should provide for this class of persons—those who are semi-mute and semi-deaf, and perhaps a few others.

Mr. MACINTIRE. You would continue the instruction by signs also?

Mr. STONE. I think so, decidedly. My own judgment would not be at all to make articulation a medium of instruction. It is a slow, round-about, difficult process.

Mr. MACINTIRE. I wished to know if you would use signs as a means of instruction in articulation?

Mr. STONE. Certainly I would. I think they would advance much faster in that way. With regard to the intimation in the paper read that teachers are deteriorating, we have seven educated gentlemen as instructors in our institution, and I never engage one who is not a man of the highest qualifications—none but graduates, and those who are physically and mentally adapted to the profession. Our institution has never been better manned, to my knowledge, than it is at the present time.

Mr. MACINTIRE. I certainly do not agree with the gentleman in the opinion expressed in the paper, that teachers of the deaf and dumb have deteriorated of late years, and are inferior in ability to what they were thirty years ago. I do not believe a word of it. A very extensive acquaint-

ance with teachers east and west, and an opportunity of seeing the fruits of their labors for the whole of the period mentioned, leads me to a very different conclusion. In no one particular have the western institutions made greater advancement than in the selection and qualification of teachers. That persons are sometimes now employed who are not qualified to teach is true; so there were thirty years ago, but not in as great proportion now as then. I have met very many of the pupils who were graduated in the older institutions previously to 1838, and in their knowledge and use of our language they fall far short in this respect to the mass of the pupils who have gone out from our institutions of late years. The imputation of the gentleman is certainly erroneous. We have now employed in our institution as instructors four liberally educated speaking gentlemen, two graduates of the high class of the New York institution, two of our own pupils, and one speaking lady.

Mr. GALLAUDET. That was not the remark to which Mr. Stone referred. It was in connection with the deterioration in the average standard in acquiring language.

Mr. MACINTIRE. The remark was as to the inferiority of teachers in giving instruction in language.

Mr. GALLAUDET. There were two distinct parts of my paper.

Mr. STONE. The point this morning was in regard to the average standard of attainment in instruction. My remark was in regard to that.

Mr. GALLAUDET. I hesitate to take up a moment's time. I will speak only in regard to English teachers. I had an interesting interview with Mr. Anderson and Mr. Baker, whose names have been mentioned in connection with teaching articulation in England. Mr. Stone's idea is that they are now on the side of opposition to articulation; that they would not care about teaching it.

Mr. STONE. They are in favor of teaching a certain proportion. My question is as to the proportion. I believe in a proportion about the same that their experience has led them to advocate.

Mr. GALLAUDET. These two gentlemen both gave me very decided testimony that, had they the ability to make their course of study eight or nine years, they would make articulation a part of the instruction to the class we have mentioned. In England and Scotland, as their course is only five or six years, having given considerable attention to articulation, they now give it up almost entirely, even with the semi-mutes, because, having but a limited time to retain them, they think they will waste no time on articulation, even with those who have some special facility in acquiring it; but if they had eight or nine years they would recommend it as I have recommended it in connection with the course.

One word in regard to the difficulty of acquiring the English language by congenital mutes. I had the pleasure of conversing, when in London, with one who understood me readily by the motion of my lips, and he understood me, although I spoke to him across the room. He told me, and others also, that he was born deaf, and had acquired his power to articulate from the father of the present principal of the London asylum, Mr. Watson.

Mr. STONE. I will, with permission, read Mr. Anderson's testimony on this point:

The experience of nearly half a century of personal deaf-mute instruction had led him to abandon all efforts at articulation, save with the semi-deaf and semi-mute.

In another place he says:

On looking back upon an experience of 41 years as a teacher of the deaf and dumb, I am free to confess that the few successful instances of articulation by deaf-mutes which I have witnessed in this and other countries were very inadequate to the time and pains bestowed upon them.



These statements I find in the tenth annual report of this institution for the year ending June 30, 1867.

Mr. TURNER. Does not M. Hirsch say the English language is much more difficult to be taught orally to deaf-mutes than the German and the French?

Mr. GALLAUDET. I think so; and I also understood from the Germans, who understood something of the English language, that we should probably find a smaller proportion who could be taught than they did.

Mr. STONE. I would ask the president to relate his own experience with the London gentleman referred to in Mr. Weld's report.

The PRESIDENT. Mr. Lowe, who was educated by the elder Watson, who prepared a book on the subject of instruction of the deaf and dumb, was able to converse pretty well by vocal speech at the time he left the London institution. He studied that branch of law embraced in conveyancing. He was a conveyancer and examiner of titles, making out deeds, &c. He called at my lodgings in London, at Red Lion Square, and Mr. Anderson, of Glasgow, was present. Mr. Anderson was at that time an advocate for articulation. I thought it one of the most fortunate coincidences during my visit that I had met this crack pupil of Dr. Watson, and Mr. Anderson, who was an advocate of articulation. I requested Mr. Anderson to engage in conversation with Mr. Lowe. "What shall I say to him," said Mr. Anderson. Said I, "Ask him any common question that you please." He asked him this question, very deliberately: "When did you see Mr. Watson?" He did not comprehend the question, and Mr. Anderson repeated it. It is to be remembered that Mr. Watson was his teacher. Mr. Lowe replied, "When you see—eh—eh—eh?" Mr. Anderson said, "Mis-ter Wat-son." "Eh—eh—eh?" "Mis-ter Wat-son." He did not get the name, and Mr. Anderson was obliged to spell it to him. This was the amount of the conversation. Mr. Anderson said: "I think I could converse with him if I had a little experience." Then, in the conversation by writing with him, I asked him if he had a family. He said he had a wife and two children. "What is your medium of communication with your wife and children? Is it by speech, by writing, or by the manual alphabet?" He pointed to the phrase in the question, "By the manual alphabet;" and then, taking the pencil, wrote, "By the fingers chiefly."

Now, here is a man who has been taught articulation. He is one of the finest specimens ever educated in the London institution, and he has a wife and two children who can hear, and still does not use vocal speech in communicating with them. I would say, however, there is a great difference, almost a world-wide difference, between the power to articulate and the ability to read on the lips. In some instances the idea can be taken from the lips without any difficulty. I saw a remarkable case in Paris. He was a semi-mute, who could read from the lips with the utmost facility; and what is more remarkable, he did not understand the English language. But I pronounced the sentences in the English language, and he read them readily from my lips; he repeated them orally from my lips. We were within two feet of each other. It was the most remarkable case I ever saw.

In a paper which I read at the fourth convention of American instructors of the deaf and dumb, I recorded an instance of this mode of intercommunication that occurred in St. Lawrence county, where an older sister was able to communicate with a deaf-mute, and indicated every idea that was desired. It was a case of affiliation, and the attorney for the defendant wrote to me for my opinion, and I wrote my answer. I have since seen one of the judges who sat on the bench at that time, and

he says that the fact was perfectly established of the ability of the older sister to communicate with the younger one, who was deaf and dumb. She was requested to do a great many things; for instance, to carry a paper to one of the judges. The paper was under half a dozen books. She went and took off the books from the top, and carried the paper to the judge. She was told to go down to the basement of the court-house and get an umbrella. She went down, and after being gone some time, she came back without it. She said it was not there. The statement was made to the hearing and speaking sister, and she communicated by mouthing to her deaf and dumb sister. In going down before, she had taken the wrong side of the passage way. She went down again, and found the umbrella and brought it up. Many other questions were asked, and she was allowed to take the oath.

Rev. Dr. GALLAUDET, of New York. There are difficulties in this whole subject; but, notwithstanding these difficulties, I am glad they are brought up, so that gentlemen may know that if they pass that resolution, the work involved will be no easy matter. It will be one that we shall need to experiment upon for years. I trust the resolution will pass. I know experiments have been tried in many institutions, and we have tried them in New York; but I do feel that we have not come up to the full measure of teaching the deaf and dumb to articulate. The smaller institutions will not have the means perhaps, but the older ones may make a point of it, to see if we may not have an appropriation for the attempt. I would put at the head of it a fully qualified gentleman, and we should find out by experiment whether he had better teach geography and history, &c., or whether he had better teach generally as we have done heretofore. My opinion is that we shall find out that we must go on teaching as we have done heretofore. I am satisfied that, in order to give the best education, that which constitutes character, we need the sign language to train our pupils up to a high standard of moral and spiritual character. But articulation must be taught as an accomplishment, as pupils in other institutions are taught music. The general system as now carried out in this country I believe to be the most perfect. I believe we have added to it as it was obtained from the French progenitors of the system. I would, therefore, as I said, put a gentleman fully qualified to the work, and I would make up a class for training those most promising.

If this gentleman can be a medical man, it seems to me it will be of great importance to the institution; it will open an interesting subject of examination. Not but that the whole subject has been looked into carefully, but it cannot be exhausted. There is an individual in New York who has often visited our institution, who has a new idea about the whole matter of hearing—as to the auditory nerve. We must not settle down with the idea that because others have examined this subject it has been exhausted. A young physician may strike something that will be of great importance to us all. If in small institutions they cannot bring in a physician, they may find a resident physician, a wide-awake man who is enthusiastic; who would come like a true philanthropist to see what good he could do, and I believe he would do much good by being the medical man of the institution and examining the pupils whenever he should choose. We must make a beginning.

Mr. STONE. Would you have him the principal medical man of the institution?

Dr. GALLAUDET. Yes; let him be the resident physician of the institution.

Mr. STONE. The man we employ could not be employed in that way.

Dr. GALLAUDET. I think we need to do something as an experiment, and I hope the whole thing will have a fair trial, that we shall have in all our institutions a thorough attempt to teach articulation, and that it shall not be left to insufficient efforts. We cannot, as now conducted, turn aside in our institutions to talk with semi-mutes so as to make it amount to training. I hope the resolution will pass.

Mr. PALMER. I have paid little attention to this subject. I tried last year a class of seven semi-mutes. I found three of the number to succeed very well; four I thought it of no use to prosecute my labors with further. These three I tried first in reading the primer; now they use the reader. We explain it by signs as they read. We are very careful about giving the correct pronunciation to the different words. One of them his father brought to me from a southern State, being very anxious that his language should be improved. He was accustomed to ask, for instance, when he wished to leave, "Me go down?" After being with us a few months, his father determined to have him remain a year longer. We only devote one hour a day. The teacher in the blind department has charge of them, and he teaches them just as he would ordinary children. One of the former pupils of the institution was so much improved that he could talk readily with any stranger. I have endeavored to carry out, in some measure, the spirit of this resolution, and I hope it will be adopted.

The PRESIDENT. I would like to ask Mr. Gallaudet whether he discovered the proportion of semi-mutes to be the same in Europe as it is in this country?

Mr. GALLAUDET. I regret to say that I am unable to answer that question at present.

Mr. FAY. I would like to know how many they are accustomed to have in a class. After the second year they have forty in a class, I have understood.

Mr. GALLAUDET. I found no class of more than fifteen. That was considered as a maximum number that could be taught at any period.

Mr. FAY. Are the scholars selected, or do they receive all who apply?

Mr. GALLAUDET. The practice, as I am informed from reliable witnesses, is that they receive all who apply. I know the former practice was to reject many, considering that they could not be taught. Gentlemen will find that many of the German pupils are unable to be taught by the articulation system. Their teachers seriously debated the question whether they should teach these pupils in separate classes, or have separate institutions for them.

Mr. GILLET. I wish to ask about the case of Miss Jennie Lippitt.

Mr. TURNER. She lost hearing at about six years of age; I saw her and her mother soon after. She had learned to read, and could speak well. Immediately on losing her hearing her mother began her instruction, being determined her daughter should not know anything about signs. Being assured by a physician that nothing could cure her deafness, her mother asked my advice. I inquired what she was doing. She said she was devoting five hours a day to her instruction; but found great trouble in teaching her to pronounce some letters, particularly the aspirates. I told her not to let the child go to any institution for deaf-mutes if she could give her five hours' instruction every day; that she would be more likely to retain and improve her articulation with that instruction than by attending any school.

Mr. GILLET. I presume that my friend Mr. Gallaudet will agree that that was a fair trial. I have been informed by those who know her well that she converses with readiness, and so as to be easily understood.

When asked this question: "Do you always understand when strangers speak to you?" she replied: "Not always; sometimes I do not, and I ask mother to help me." "How is it with gentlemen who wear mustaches?" I asked. "I don't like them at all," was the reply.

In this connection Mr. Gillett read extracts from a letter from the mother of Jennie Lippitt, speaking of the great progress she is making:

Jennie is doing well at school; the young ladies are classed in rooms of about thirty in each, and at the close of the last term Jennie ranked No. 1, the best scholar in her room. Her teacher told me that her lessons were better learned and better recited than any young lady in the school except one, and best in her room. That she could understand everything Jennie said, and she thought Jennie understood all the explanations. She told Jennie that she thought it was the most wonderful thing she ever knew, and that she could hardly believe it although she saw it every day, that so far as scholarship and acquirements went she considered Jennie's loss of hearing a positive advantage."

Miss Lippitt is attending a select school for speaking persons in Providence.

The PRESIDENT. There is no doubt there are some very remarkable cases; but that proves the rule to be the other way.

Mr. TURNER. We had, before the committee of the legislature, in Boston, last year, as proof of what we could do, some of our pupils. I called up one young man, who conversed as well as I can. William M. Chamberlain lost his hearing at five years of age; came to our school as a semi-mute; Mr. Weld taught him, when he came back from Europe. I exhibited him before the committee in Boston, and he answered any question that I put to him even in a whisper. There are other similar cases in this country. In regard to the daughter of Mr. Hubbard, we could understand her answer when we knew what it would be; but when I gave her a little book and opened it to a particular place, without any of us knowing what she was about to read, neither the committee nor myself, though we listened with attention, could understand more than one or two words.

Mr. PEET. In regard to the case of Miss Lippitt, it seems to me that if any semi-mute could receive the amount of instruction that she has received, whatever be the system, a much greater development could be gained than in a large class, especially when taken so young, and immediately after the loss of hearing, before the language of childhood had been lost. The relations she was brought into with her mother would tend to the development of the mind. But the question is not with regard to the points which we are discussing, what is the best method of instructing where money and time is no object; but what system will produce the greatest good to the greatest number. And in deciding this question in that regard, I presume we shall all come to the same conclusion, that in an institution in which we are teaching a great number, we should pursue the system which will accomplish the greatest results in the most economical manner; and that we should seek to engraft upon it those benefits to individuals which the means of the parents, or which the peculiar circumstances and intelligence of the child will admit. We have had one case where a girl was taught to play upon a piano. It was an accomplishment; she had no hearing whatever, yet she was taught to play sweet pieces very well. It was a source of great surprise to everybody. It was done at the request of her parents and for the purpose of making people open their eyes.

I will read some extracts from my last report to the directors of the New York institution, to show how this question is regarded with us:

No one doubts that most deaf-mute children, even those congenitally deaf, can, if the experiment is begun sufficiently early, be taught to utter sounds that, to those accustomed to hear them, may represent words, and to distinguish some strongly marked utterances on the lips of their acquaintances. But it should be remembered that this artificial articulation,

however far it may be carried, is not speech; it is simply a set of arbitrary signs, made with the lips it is true, but associated with no melody of sound; with no intonations, which, by their appropriateness, seem to express even more than the word itself, and with none of that mental life which the ear breathes in from the atmosphere of social intercourse. Hence, to him, this artificial articulation is useless as a medium of thought and reasoning, while its value as an instrument of communication is in most cases less than that of several other methods. It is only signs that can in any measure replace to the deaf what speech is to the hearing. I might say that they do even more; for, superior in one respect to speech, they are in a great measure self-interpreting. The deaf child, introduced into the society of the institution, begins at once, as children do that hear, to catch, and that without conscious effort, the ideas current in the world around him. His mind is stimulated into action, and he begins to express thoughts of his own, and thus, in his case, action and reaction are found equal. The teachers associate freely with him, talk with him, try to interest him at all times and on various occasions, and thus his mind is elevated by coming in contact with minds more fully developed than his own.

After speaking of the two great advantages to be derived from the use of natural signs—which consist, in the first place, in giving the pupil a fixed idea in the natural order, and requiring him to reproduce the same in appropriate words of his own selection, thus giving him practice in composition and obtaining a measure of his progress in language, and, in the second place, in requiring him to translate a given passage into signs, thus securing an infallible test of his comprehension of connected language—the report goes on to say:

So soon as, through signs, the mind has been developed and alphabetic language has been acquired, the deaf-mute should be made to use it as much as possible. This is done by means of the manual alphabet and by writing. With the former, which any one can acquire, after a few days of practice, many deaf-mutes can spell out sentences as rapidly as an effective orator would speak in addressing a public assembly.

I here speak from my own experience. I can translate by the manual alphabet so that my wife can understand perfectly the language of a speaker, given by me in his exact words, without any omissions. I go on to say:

As a matter of convenience I would advise that all friends of deaf-mutes should acquire it, and that it should be introduced into all the common schools of the country.

Then, after speaking of different individuals and referring to the very able and striking report of Mr. Gallaudet, I have been able to say, as representing the present views and practice of the New York institution:

Still there are cases in which instruction in articulation yields not altogether too insignificant a return for the labor and time it demands. There are two classes of deaf persons to whom the value of articulation is undeniable: those who possess a remnant of hearing sufficient to give them, with more or less labor, a tolerably distinct internal sense of the words they attempt to utter, and those more numerous cases, technically called semi-mutes, who learned to speak more or less fluently before they lost their hearing. These last already possess the precious faculty of internal speech, and cases not unfrequently occur when the hearing has been lost at an age just at the verge of that somewhat variable period at which the loss of hearing entails deaf-dumbness. In such cases zealous and judicious attention to the child's articulation may sometimes retain and advance, in the class of semi-mutes, one who, if neglected, may slide back into the class of true mutes. I do not here speak of the congenitally deaf, because, though there are rare but well-authenticated cases in which deaf-mutes from birth have become able to speak intelligibly and to read on the lips with some facility, yet such cases are exceptional, as Paul Morphy in chess or Zerah Colborn in mental calculation; and when they are found, demand an extra amount of time, labor, and devotion, which would involve at least fifteen times the cost for instruction that is required in the ordinary mode of education practiced in our institutions. That some special provision should be made for these two classes has long been fully conceded, and several of our teachers have, in past years, given time and labor to such cases. That more was not done in that way is to be ascribed mainly to a feeling that the efforts to preserve the articulation of a child which had become deaf after learning to speak a little, are best made in the family by its own parents and sisters, and in those tender years when the organs of speech are yet pliant, and the habit of speaking is not yet lost by disuse. Very little can be done in this direction at the age of twelve or fourteen, at which the bulk of our pupils used to come to us. But now that we have so large a number of small children, many of them as young as six or seven, it seems a suitable time to renew, on a more extensive scale and in a more

systematic manner, the effort to improve the ability possessed by many of our pupils to speak and read on the lips.

Accordingly the committee of instruction, of which the Rev. Dr. Gallaudet is chairman, at its last meeting in September authorized me to confer with some intelligent young man who had a thorough medical education, with a view to his becoming a professor of articulation in the institution.

So that Dr. Gallaudet practically introduced the idea into our institution which he has introduced in his remarks here.

The reason for selecting a physician, rather than a non-professional man, is the great advantage arising from the knowledge of the anatomy and functions of the organs of speech. He might thus discover important principles which would make this institution in this respect, as it desires to be in every respect, foremost in its speciality. I would have such a man, moreover, make a study of aural surgery, for which, on account of our numbers, he would have peculiar advantages.

Should we be so fortunate as to secure the services of a man that would devote himself to his work with the zeal and talent that made the name of Itard illustrious, we should be more than compensated for the delay. Perhaps these very words may fall under the eye of some such man, and turn his thoughts to this particular field. Meanwhile, feeling that this matter is too important to be neglected, I have appointed O. W. Morris, A. M., the most experienced of our professors, and who has paid considerable attention to this subject, instructor *ad interim* in artificial speech and reading on the lips; and from his systematic and enthusiastic efforts in this direction, I augur as much success as is practicable in the present state of this interesting experiment.

In this connection I would say that Mr. Morris wished me to bear testimony to the fact that his knowledge of signs was a great help in enabling him to teach articulation to his pupils.

Mr. MACINTIRE said that he understood that Dr. Howe, Mr. Sanborn, and some others, insisted that instruction in articulation, to be successful, should be carried on in schools distinct and separate from those in which signs are used. If any gentleman present had such views he would like to hear from him. He thought, however, the plan proposed in the resolutions now before the conference would be preferable.

Mr. GILLETT. I have not any opinion clearly on that point, but I am very strongly inclined to that opinion. But I understand Mr. Turner to say that he thought the class in articulation should be entirely excluded from the other class. I think I should agree in that view.

Mr. TURNER. I said I would in the older institutions have a teacher employed who should take the pupils after having been instructed in signs two or three years.

Mr. GILLETT. I understood you to say after the first year.

Mr. TURNER. I did not intend to be very definite as to time, but would be governed by the progress the pupils had made in knowledge. After they can understand signs I would have them fitted to go into the higher class taught by articulation. Their recitations to their teacher should be oral; but if there was any difficulty needing explanation, as of a new word, I think signs should be brought into use.

Mr. GALLAUDET. I would submit to the conference, whether at this stage of the discussion on articulation, having spent three and a half hours upon it, and having developed a very gratifying degree of unanimity in the general idea, we might not very properly come to a vote on these two resolutions which I offered this morning, for, designedly I avoided committing ourselves to any special manner of doing this work. It must be of necessity a work of experiment to a very great degree. These resolutions simply express what has been expressed by every gentleman who has spoken.

The first resolution was then read and unanimously adopted:

*Resolved*, That in the opinion of this conference, it is the duty of all institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb to provide adequate means for imparting instruction in articulation and in lip-reading, to such of their pupils as may be able to engage with profit in exercises of this nature.

Mr. Stone then offered the following as the second resolution :

*Resolved*, That while in our judgment it is desirable to give semi-mutes and semi-deaf children every facility for retaining and improving any power of articulate speech which they may possess, it is not profitable except in very rare cases to attempt to teach congenital mutes articulation.

Mr. GALLAUDET. I quite agree with the resolution. We may experiment with such ; but to attempt to give all congenital mutes a full course of instruction in articulation, is, I am satisfied, a fruitless expenditure of time and money.

Mr. GILLETT. What troubles me is the question, how am I to know the exceptional cases, and which are the rare cases ?

Dr. MILLIGAN did not think it right to force an opinion upon this body by a majority.

The PRESIDENT. Is it forcing an opinion upon the conference that semi-mutes are proper subjects of instruction ?

Mr. MILLIGAN. This is the opinion that is to be forced upon us—that it is not profitable except in rare cases.

After some further suggestions in regard to changes in the phraseology of the resolution, it was adopted in the form above given.

The second resolution, offered by Mr. Gallaudet, was then adopted as the third, as follows :

*Resolved*, That to attain success in this department of instruction an added force of instructors will be necessary, and this conference hereby recommends to boards of directors of institutions for the deaf and dumb in this country that speedy measures be taken to provide the funds needed for the prosecution of this work.

Mr. Stone offered the following resolution :

*Resolved*, That the American system of deaf-mute education, as practiced and developed in the institutions of this country for the last fifty years, commends itself by the best of all tests, that of prolonged, careful and successful experiment, as in the highest degree adapted to relieve the peculiar misfortune of the deaf-mute and restore him to the blessings of society.

Pending the consideration of this resolution conference adjourned to Friday morning at 9 o'clock.

In the evening an exhibition was given by the students of the college in the chapel of the institution.

#### FRIDAY MORNING, May 15, 1868.

The conference was called to order agreeably to adjournment, and the minutes of yesterday were read by the secretary and approved.

Mr. TALBOT. I desire, at the instance of several gentlemen, to move a reconsideration of the vote by which the second resolution yesterday, was adopted. I do so for the purpose of moving an amendment.

The motion to reconsider was agreed to ; and the resolution was taken up for consideration, and the following was offered as a substitute for the latter part of the resolution.

*Resolved*, That in our judgment it is not profitable, except in promising cases, discovered after fair experiment, to carry congenital mutes through a course of instruction in articulation.

Dr. Gallaudet, of New York, seconded the adoption of the substitute.

Mr. STONE. I would rather prefer the old word "rare," because I think the results sustain us ; but if the conference is not ready for the "rare," take the "promising."

The substitute was then adopted.

The conference then proceeded to consider the resolution offered yesterday by Mr. Stone, to constitute the fourth of the series, which is as follows :

That the American system of deaf-mute education, as practiced and developed in the institutions of this country for the last fifty years, commends itself by the best of all tests, that of prolonged, careful and successful experiment, as in the highest degree adapted to relieve the peculiar misfortune of the deaf-mute, and restore him to the blessings of society.

Dr. Johnson offered the following amendment:

After the word experiment insert the words, "as the true basis of instruction and with the additions proposed in the foregoing resolutions."

Mr. STONE. I would not object very seriously to the amendment; but inasmuch as the first resolution provides for this class of persons, I would not add to it. There is no occasion even seemingly to find fault with the system which we have found to be so successful. We have always provided for these two classes of persons. It seems to me the modification we have already adopted is only a little more in the same direction. I should prefer to have our testimony to the American system strong, distinct and emphatic, and leave it there.

Mr. GALLAUDET. It seems to me that this amendment is a proper one. It commends itself to my judgment for this reason: it makes the last resolution entirely consistent with the former resolutions. It is true that articulation has received attention in our institutions; but it has never received any formal endorsement by any body of teachers. And so far as our recommendation goes, it becomes a feature, an accomplishment which we desire to add to, and have take a place in our system of instruction. Therefore, it seems to me it would be proper for us, in this last resolution, endorsing the American system, to give our view that it is the true basis and the right theory. But it seems to me, that, to make our action consistent, we need to recognize this formal admission of the latter amendment. I hope it will commend itself to the conference.

Mr. STONE. The last resolution speaks of the American system simply as a basis. Now, it seems to me that our experience and our discussion have shown that our system is more than a basis. There are exceptional cases, where it is desirable to give some other kind of instruction, and inasmuch as we say all we desire to say in regard to articulation in the first resolution, we should leave it there. We can endorse this system without this amendment, and I should prefer to have the resolution pass as it stands.

Mr. MILLIGAN. I am very anxious to vote the compliment to the American system, which has been proposed by the gentleman from Hartford. I am in favor of the adoption of the amendment also, but I think the resolution will be more easily understood if we leave that off, and also one phrase in the resolution, proposed by Mr. Stone; I refer to these words: "in the highest degree." I ask the gentleman from Hartford if he will allow those words to be left out.

Mr. MACINTIRE. The words proposed to be stricken out contain the very substance of the resolution, and without them it would have very little force. A comparison is drawn between the method of instruction which we practice and the system based upon articulation and reading from the lips; and the resolution as it now stands asserts the pre-eminence of the former. The only school in this country of the latter kind is the one at Northampton, in Massachusetts. There the use of signs is absolutely prohibited, and the communication of instruction is made to depend upon articulation. It is claimed by its advocates to be a better method. We are charged with practicing an inferior system. They have made no new discovery; both systems have been practiced in Europe for more than a century. The question for us to decide is, which is the best? Is that system which excludes signs altogether, and makes instruction depend upon articulation and reading from the lips, to be preferred to the one we practice, which, while it makes signs a basis of instruction, avails itself of the advantages of articulation? The claim is not that our system is perfect, but that the experience of the last fifty years does prove it to be pre-eminent over that of articulation and in the high-



est degree efficient for the education of this class of persons. Therefore I am opposed to the amendment suggested by the gentleman from Wisconsin.

Mr. MILLIGAN. But if we adopt this resolution, we say that no other system which may be followed hereafter can equal the American system.

Mr. MACINTIRE. No; we say up to the present time no other system has proved itself equal, much less superior to it.

Mr. MILLIGAN. It seems to me that it says in regard to the American system that it is pre-eminent over any other system, either of the past or in the future.

Mr. PEET suggested that the words "peculiarly adapted" be substituted.

Mr. MILLIGAN said he would vote for "peculiarly adapted."

Mr. PEET further urged the use of some word like "addition," so as to indicate that this was in addition to the previous work of the American system. When we have done that, he said, we have the most complete system in the world, and wherever an attempt is made to overthrow our system we can defend it with little fear of being worsted. On this basis we can sustain each other in carrying on the education of the deaf and dumb; and when an institution is started which proposes to do away with the American system we can point to the actual success we have attained in giving the deaf and dumb a knowledge of the English language, and an education in the fundamental principles of knowledge and ask if it can promise more, and in this matter of articulation, if that is claimed as something better, we can say we do not regard this as an essential, but simply as a means of expressing knowledge otherwise acquired. Signs are the basis and the best basis which can be devised, but as there are cases in which we consider that we can profitably do it, we teach articulation too. If any New England State chooses to forego the benefits which the American Asylum offers to her in practically presenting to her a hundred dollars out of its fund for every pupil she may send, we will not offer any opposition to her doing so; but when an effort is made to seek the support of the public for schools established upon a different basis from ours, so far as the system of instruction is concerned, we will take the strong ground that our system is the true one, and that anything which can be done or ought to be done in the education of the deaf and dumb can be accomplished and shall be accomplished in connection with it. I would like it if the mover would agree to substitute the words "with the addition proposed" for the word "improvement."

Mr. GILLET. I agree with some of the remarks of Professor Peet, and disagree with some. I am not able to see that any State should be discouraged in any efforts its citizens may make for the education of their deaf and dumb. I think it is a duty that is incumbent on every commonwealth to be satisfied that they have the best instruction for their deaf-mutes and the best institution they can obtain. My position on the general question is this: that the American system had shown superior results to any other that had been tested, and I so stated in the eleventh report of the Illinois institution. I still believe that to be true. But when any other system shall show itself superior to ours, I am ready to adopt that system. But I do not propose to give up the system we now have until a better is offered. But when another is shown to be better I will adopt it.

Mr. PEET. I will adopt that as a part of my remarks. [Laughter.]

Mr. STONE. We all agree to that, and are ready to adopt the best system.

I understand that if "peculiarly" is used instead of "in the highest degree," the resolutions will be more acceptable to some gentlemen. My object is to do away with the last proposed amendment. We have that in the first resolution, and I am not in favor of repeating it.

Mr. FAY. The word "peculiarly" does not meet my approval. There are but two systems. If we say peculiarly, which is the other? I would prefer the words "high degree."

Mr. PEET. As I understand, this is only provisional; that is, that we will amend an expression and let it down from "the highest degree" provided the other amendment is not urged. If the amendment is adopted I shall vote against letting it down at all. But I would like to state why I should be in favor of the amendment. It only modifies in appearance the first resolution, while it enables us to go before the public and say that there is nothing that will not do for the deaf and dumb. It is not necessary to change the system radically. In other words, our system is so good that you may make additions where it is necessary, and we will adopt them. It is like this college building, which can have additions made to it, and yet be perfect all the while. I don't think this articulation is the dome; it is only something put on one of the towers, to be followed by something else to be put on another by and by, as we go on making our system better.

I have already been met with this subject. A little school was started in New York by a German who came over at the instance of some German Jews. I have seen some of the children he has taught; we have some that he had already started, who have been brought to our institution. There was a seance of the Medical Society of New York, to which I had the honor of an invitation. It was ostensibly to hear the reading of a paper by a German physician, of considerable eminence as a surgeon, upon deaf-dumbness. Any one would have supposed that this subject was to be considered from a medical point of view. But when the physician rose to read, the question, so far as it appertained to physicians and surgeons, was entirely ignored, and this method of teaching by articulation was brought forth as something wonderful and astonishing, and they had there this German teacher, with some of his children, who were able to do something in the way of articulation, and they gave a little exhibition. And after the exhibition, one of the physicians remarked that I was present, and said he desired to put some questions. He did so, and it gave me the opportunity of discussing very fully the subject of our method of instruction and its peculiar advantages; and then I was able, very fortunately, to add that we were already giving this instruction as an accomplishment; that we considered it an addition, an important addition; and we were ready to do this work or anything else that might be required in the education of the deaf and dumb. Several of the gentlemen present remarked this is nothing but an accomplishment; it cannot be radical. And one in particular, having in his pocket a copy of the New Englander, containing Mr. Gallaudet's article detailing the conclusions he had reached after visiting the schools abroad, read passages from it confirming the position I had assumed, so that Mr. Gallaudet was fully represented there accidentally.

There was no further discussion, and every one seemed to feel that there was no need of further discussion. I had also the further pleasure of having the writer of the paper coming to me and saying, "I must apologize that I did not invite you to come to hear my paper, for I am convinced that you are right." Therefore, if we put ourselves on record, that we are ready to do everything that is necessary, it is all we should do.

Mr. MACINTIRE. It is important that we should put ourselves on record, not only as to what we stand ready to attempt, but also as to the estimate we put upon the system which we have practiced so long, and what it is capable of effecting. The resolution as it stands, without the amendment, in connection with the previous resolutions, it seems to me, fully meets the case. The amendment, if adopted, will convey an erroneous impression. It expresses the idea that our system of instruction is radically deficient, and that, by recent occurrences, we have been forced to add a different system, and one too, the peculiar advocates of which, in this country at least, wholly repudiate the use of the language of signs. The amendment says "with the additions proposed in the foregoing resolutions." Those resolutions do not propose additions to the system nor to change the basis of instruction, but they recommend that in certain specified cases greater attention be given to articulation, while they expressly deny that it is desirable, except in rare cases, to attempt to instruct in this way congenital mutes. Are we prepared to abandon our action and assume new ground? Is it true that oral language is now to be introduced for the first time among us as an instrument of instruction? It will not be denied that in all the American institutions some attention has been given to articulation, not as much as ought to have been given. This we admit, and we have just resolved that we will continue this work not only with semi-mutes and semi-deaf-mutes, but will extend its benefits to promising cases of congenital mutes.

Therefore, I most heartily believe that our system of instruction is better adapted to promote the education of the deaf and dumb than any other yet devised; that it is capable of doing this in the highest degree, not the highest degree possible; but the highest degree yet attained by any other system. Entertaining these views, I cannot agree to the amendment, but hope it will be voted down and the original proposition adopted.

Mr. GALLAUDET. One word more before the question is taken on the amendment. I regret to differ from my friend from Indiana. I think the first resolution, if adopted, would actually commit this conference to say, that in our opinion, for the last fifty years, all that could possibly be done for the education of the deaf and dumb had actually been done. Now, by the action of our conference already consummated, we have declared, as a matter of history, that we have not always done all that we could.

Mr. STONE. I think not.

Mr. GALLAUDET. Was it not intended by you to say that it was the best system?

Mr. STONE. As a system.

Mr. GALLAUDET. In my judgment, if the present development in regard to articulation had come twenty five years ago, the history of the American system would have been more creditable. What I was going to say was, that we are regarding our system as the basis. I think it would be claiming too much to say our system is more than the base. Human work is ever progressive; human work is never perfect. God alone perfects. Man is constantly striving upward and onward and forward. And to contend that for the last fifty years our system has attained the highest possible success, I think would be a mistake. I feel that all we have done down to the present time is but the basis for future effort, which is to go onward for many centuries. We are thinking too little of the vast extent of time. Our country is new; we jump quick; we go with a rush, and we feel in our enthusiasm that we are doing all that human art and skill can devise. That is well; it is a great element of

success; but I think we should not lose sight of the fact that our work in which we are engaged is but just begun. When this work shall have gone forward for a thousand years; when *our* work shall have passed back into the obscure, uncertain days of ancient history, it will seem far from just and right and commendable for us to have adopted such a resolution. I feel that our work is to lay the foundations in the broadest and longest sense. We are now aiming to make that foundation good and strong and true, so that everything desirable may be built upon it. And I regard the matter proposed by the amendment offered by the gentleman from Alabama as the very important thing we should address ourselves to. I feel that we should do ourselves far more credit, to consider our work for the last fifty years as the base, and then to say that we are ready to build upon it anything useful. I think we should consider that our building is by no means complete; we are by no means putting on the dome; we are still digging in the ground and laying in the heavy stones on which the future generations are to build and be far in advance of us; and when, from our higher and more perfect sphere of existence hereafter, we look down upon it, we shall wonder that we thought we had approximated at this time to the completion. I think we may properly adopt the amendment and then the resolution. I feel that that will be the sentiment which will be honorable to the conference and which will stand the record of time.

MR. MACINTIRE. Mr. President, I regret to prolong this discussion, but feel constrained to add a few words in explanation of the position I have taken on this subject. My position is that the American system for the education of the deaf and dumb, based as it is upon the use of the language of signs, is the best system that has yet been devised, and that the history of it, as practiced in this country for the last 50 years, shows it to be such beyond all question; and that it is capable, with improvements made, making, and susceptible of being made, of effecting the work before us in the highest degree, not "highest degree" possible, but in the highest degree attained or attainable by any other system of which I have any knowledge. I think it was one of the most fortunate things for the deaf and dumb of this country that ever happened, that, in the inception of the work here, that great and good man, the father of the last speaker, was led to adopt the French system of instruction instead of the one then practiced in England, Scotland, and some parts of Germany. Both systems have a common object, the education of the deaf and dumb. The basis of the one is the language of signs, and of the other, articulation and reading upon the lips. These processes of instruction have been practiced for more than a century in Europe, and in this country for half a century. Of their merits the American teachers are not wholly ignorant. The subject has been as thoroughly discussed in this country as in any other. The thanks of the profession and the public are due to those gentlemen who have so ably handled it in the past, and especially to the brethren of Hartford for their triumphant defence of our cause before the legislature of Massachusetts, and not less to the president of the college, for his late excellent report on foreign systems of instruction. But what is the practical question before the conference? At Northampton, in the State of Massachusetts, an institution has been established for the deaf and dumb, in which signs, as an instrument of instruction, have been wholly repudiated as injurious in their tendencies. Rejecting signs and using articulation is heralded abroad over the country as the better method. Why do we not give up signs and teach articulation? We meet the question out west. Now what answer does the conference give to this assumption? In the res-

olutions just adopted is an answer distinct and to the point: that articulation excludes from its benefits a large part of the deaf and dumb; but that our system embraces all semi-mutes, semi-deaf-mutes, and congenital mutes, and provides for instruction in articulation for all that can be profited by it, and the facilities for retaining and improving the power of speech in any that may not wholly have lost it. This, in the judgment of this conference, is what our system is capable of doing for the deaf and dumb, and we thus commend it to the public, and appeal to the experience of the last fifty years, as this system has been practiced in this country, to show that it is capable of accomplishing this great work better and in a higher degree than any system which makes articulation a basis of instruction.

I agree most heartily in all that my friend, the president of the college, says in favor of progress, and fully concur in his remark that the art of instructing the deaf and dumb is far from being perfect, and will unite with him and any others in the onward march of improvement to the best of my ability. But I differ from him in the estimate he puts upon the capabilities of the American system of instruction. I think it has done more and is capable of doing more for the benefit of the deaf and dumb than any other system that has yet been devised, and believing this, I think it is eminently proper for the conference to affirm it distinctly, as is proposed in the resolution offered by Mr. Stone.

Mr. GALLAUDET re-read the resolution so that each might understand it; and proceeded: "Fifty years;" there is a limited period; it has gone into the past, and cannot be changed.

Mr. MACINTIRE. Thus far.

Mr. GALLAUDET. No, sir; there is no "thus far." It seems to me, if I can understand the English language, that this resolution takes the record of the last fifty years and brings it before us, and points us to the view without comparing it with anything in the past or present or in the future. It says it is "in the highest degree adapted to relieve," &c. Now this amendment proposes to make this change, "as the true basis of instruction for the deaf and dumb." Suppose we stop there; what more can we say? What more have we a right to say? I would propose that we stop there, at the words "deaf and dumb." What comes after has been objected to; and now, if we stop there, we simply give our entire approval, our commendation of all that has been done, and we say that is the basis, that is where we are to build; everything else that comes in must come in as an added pillar, an ornamental capital, a new wall, a new pediment. Therefore I feel disposed to move an amendment to the amendment, to strike out all after the words, "the true basis of instruction for the deaf and dumb." The last I do not conceive to be of any essential importance to our action. We record our opinion as to the basis, and we say it commends itself by the best tests. I think that is all we can be asked to commit ourselves to, in order to stand true to the history of the last half century.

Mr. STONE. I have no wish to prolong this discussion. This resolution has expressed an opinion respecting our work for the last fifty years. I do not agree with the remarks of the president of this institution. With what do we compare it? It is simply with the past and, we are surely ready, or ought to be, to take that ground with regard to this system of instruction. The men who have labored so faithfully in our profession for the last fifty years have done something more than lay the basis of instruction. That is a very weak and tame word. Rather, upon a solid basis we have erected a noble superstructure. You may have a strong basis and a rotten superstructure. I do not know what may be in the

future, possibly there may be no deaf and dumb, but I have little hope of such a golden age. I claim that we have already educated deaf and dumb in a very high degree. Our system has already produced the very highest results. No person can take the reports of some of our institutions and read the compositions of some of those who have been educated there, and who were congenital mutes too, without agreeing that if our system can produce such results, it is perfectly proper to speak of it as achieving the highest success. We do not mean it is perfect like God's work. We have shown something worthy of being called more than a basis. I do not agree that adding on little accomplishments is going to reconstruct or renovate this system for all time. I do not speak for the future; the future may reveal something more noble, something less fatiguing than our present processes. Our present system allows this modification, and every real improvement. I hold to the fact that our system is the best that has yet appeared. I wish to give a strong expression of opinion as to what we have been about in this country. Gentlemen who have labored in the profession for a short time may talk about a basis if they please, but I will not admit that I have spent thirty-five years working so near the ground. For the last fifty years I have seen nothing in all the records of deaf-mute instruction at all to compare with what we show in this country in bringing out these children of misfortune upon the highest plane of culture. Take the performance of last evening for a specimen. I have seen nothing to compare with it in articulation; but this is the result of instructing children into the knowledge of language by means of signs. *It seems to me that every member of this conference who has had experience can heartily endorse this resolution, in view of the results we have attained.* Our English or German brethren have never shown such results as we show in this country. When our German brethren show something, or when at Northampton they show something better than ours, it may be time to change our views. It may be comparatively easy to take children we have educated and put through the difficulties of language, and then give them articulation. But if they will begin at the beginning and beat our system I will cheerfully acknowledge it.

Mr. GILLET. I would like to have the word "practice" changed.

Mr. PEET. I like the words "highest degree," and I like the word "best," and wish to bring them both in.

Mr. GILLET. I have no objection to the word "developed," but I object to the manner in which we have practiced it. I differ with the gentleman from Connecticut, (Mr. Stone,) that the compositions published in the reports of the New York institution or of any other institution, or the exhibition we had last night, are fair criteria. The young men exhibited last evening were all semi-mutes, persons who have heard and can now talk. They have been selected from the Atlantic ocean to the Mississippi river, and are far more exceptional cases than is Miss Dudley to whom Mr. Stone has alluded as such. I cannot vote for the words "as practiced," because we have had—and I say it with sorrow and shame—large numbers of children who might have been fully restored to society; and we have not done it.

Mr. PEET. You have no proof of that.

Mr. GILLET. I have seen enough to satisfy me of it this morning. I have seen a lady at this institution who speaks a little, and I inquired if she had been taught articulation at all, and she said she had not. I believe there are those in my institution that have been sadly neglected in this particular. And I cannot agree that the practice heretofore adopted shall be similarly continued. If we choose to improve on what

we have done, I wish this convention to leave the way entirely free for all to make any improvements that may be found practicable in the course of our further experience.

On motion of Mr. Gallaudet, the conference voted to appoint a committee of three, to whom all the resolutions were referred, to bring in such resolutions as would express the views generally concurred in this morning.

Messrs. Gallaudet, Stone and McIntire were appointed as the committee.

The conference then listened to the seventh paper by Rev. W. W. Turner, ex-principal of the American Asylum, entitled—

#### HEREDITARY DEAFNESS.

All the operations of nature are carried on conformably to general laws. In other words, God has enstamped the law of order on all the works of His hands. The planets revolve, each on its own axis, and all in their respective orbits round a common centre. Matter in all its forms is subject to the law of gravitation. Organized matter endued with life, whether vegetable or animal, has its laws of growth, of nutrition, of digestion, of reproduction, which are fixed and essential to the continued existence of these organized bodies. It is, however, the law of reproduction only that relates directly to our subject. This law extending through all classes of living beings may be concisely stated thus: *Like produces like*. Individuals of each and every species have the power of producing germs which, however, fertilized, become at least beings in all important respects similar to those which produced them, so that the plant or animal of any given species at the present time differs in nothing essential from an individual of the same species of a thousand years ago. In its application to the human family this law is not confined to its single species, *homo*, but extends to the several races which it comprises. The children of each race are uniformly found with the peculiarities of their parents, so that those of Caucasian parentage differ from those born of negroes in all cases precisely as their parents differ from each other. This statement presupposes that all the individuals included in it exist in their normal condition, and does not apply to any superfluity or deficiency of parts occasioned by disease or accident.

It is, however, a well known fact as regards domestic animals that certain unusual variations of form or color which sometimes occur among their offspring may, by a careful selection of others similar, and by a continual breeding of like with like, be rendered permanent, so as to constitute a distinct variety, as in the case of horses, sheep, and swine. The same course adopted and pursued in the human race would undoubtedly lead to the same result. Even as marriages are now arranged with little regard to similarity of size, complexion, or features, we very frequently find the children bearing a strong resemblance to one or both of the parents, some having the complexion, the eyes, the hair of the mother, and the figure, the features and expression of the father. It is generally believed that certain diseases or their germs are transmitted from parents to their children, such as insanity, epilepsy, consumption, scrofula, rheumatism, &c. Not that they are born with these diseases actually upon them, but that they inherit certain peculiarities of constitution which predispose them in after life, under the influence of exciting causes, to have the disease with which one or both of the parents had been afflicted. Now, if these constitutional tendencies and peculiar configuration of external organs are sometimes transmitted by parents to their offspring, as they certainly are, may we not reasonably infer that the same is true of the internal organs?

The hearing apparatus, consisting of several small bones with their connecting ligaments, membranes and nerves is a complicated structure, requiring a nice adjustment of its parts in order to the proper performance of its appropriate function. A slight deviation from the normal position, size, or tension of any of these parts may be attended with imperfect hearing, while a still further departure in the same direction may result in partial or entire deafness. We will suppose a man to have been born with a slightly imperfect arrangement of the parts of the internal ear. He ordinarily hears pretty well, but at times, under the influence of a severe cold, with difficulty. It may be that in old age he is quite deaf. Suppose him to have married a woman with a similar conformation of this organ. This defect, it might be expected, would be intensified in some of their children to such a degree that one or more of them should be congenitally deaf. Would this be any more singular than for a man with large, flabby ears, a hooked or upturned nose, to have a son with the same, or aggravated peculiarities? Yet this is no uncommon thing. Shall it then be thought strange, if congenital deaf-mutes intermarry and have children, that they should sometimes transmit their infirmity to those begotten by them? Should we not rather expect that in conformity with the general law of propagation most of their children would be congenitally deaf?

Having thus stated and developed our theory, without stopping to consider other supposable causes of congenital deafness, as climate, marriage of relatives, accidents to the mother, her mental impressions, and the like, all of which under certain circumstances and in peculiar cases may unfavorably affect the hearing of children previous to their birth, we shall now endeavor to show conclusively that our theory is sustained by a large amount of facts, carefully selected and arranged, the correctness of which cannot be called in question.

Our first argument in favor of this theory of hereditary deafness is based upon a number of cases of deaf children whose father or mother was known to be partially deaf. We present a few of these from many more which might be given. There is in one of the cities of Connecticut a woman who became somewhat deaf in early life. The infirmity has increased with her years, until now at about the age of fifty she is unable to hear what is said by those about her without the help of an ear-trumpet. Her only child was born so deaf that he has never learned to speak. Many years ago a young man came from Massachusetts as a pupil to the American asylum so deaf from infancy that he could derive no benefit from attending a common school, though he had learned to speak imperfectly, whose father was nearly as deaf as himself. The mother of a family in New Hampshire, partially deaf, had a son born in the same condition, and a hearing daughter who became entirely deaf when a year old in consequence of a severe cold in the head. A gentleman who died in Connecticut some years since at an advanced age was quite deaf the latter part of his life. He had one daughter afflicted in the same way, and another daughter who gradually lost her hearing so as to prevent her joining in the conversation of the family without artificial aid while yet a young woman. A grand-daughter of his is becoming deaf, and a great-grand-daughter is a deaf-mute, having lost her hearing at the age of three years by an attack of measles.

A second argument in support of our theory may be drawn from another class of cases like the following, where one child in a family lost hearing by disease after it was known to have been born with perfect hearing, and one or more other children were born deaf. There was a family in New Hampshire of seven children, of whom three were deaf-



mutes. The deafness of the oldest and the youngest was congenital. The other lost hearing by scarlet fever when three years old. In a family of five children living in Maine, one lost hearing by ulcers in the ears at three years of age; another, seven years younger, with two hearing children between them, was born deaf. A man living in Massachusetts has a family of five children, two of whom are deaf-mutes. The oldest of them was born so, the other lost his hearing by a cold when about five years of age, and not long after his speech also. Two sisters in Vermont were afflicted with ulcers in their ears, each at about the age of nine months, and when old enough to ascertain the fact, both were found to be entirely deaf. There were hearing children in the family also. One of these girls married a congenital deaf-mute, and had five daughters, all of whom could hear but the second, and was born deaf.

A third argument for our theory is derived from the fact that deafness exists in certain families and is transmitted either in the direct line of descent or in collateral branches, and sometimes in both. There was a man in New Hampshire born deaf whose wife could hear. Their two children, a son and a daughter, were born deaf. The son married a congenitally deaf girl and had a hearing daughter and a deaf son. The deaf daughter married a hearing man and had one hearing and two deaf sons. One of the latter married a deaf-mute and had four hearing children, one of whom lost her hearing by measles when two years old. There was a great-grandmother in Massachusetts who could hear and speak, from whom descended, in several different families, 16 deaf-mute great-grandchildren. Without citing any more individual cases, let it suffice to state that of the 1,700 deaf-mutes who have been received as pupils at the American Asylum about 100 have collateral relatives deaf and dumb, not counting the correlatives of those enumerated. Quite a number is included among these who lost hearing in early childhood. How much of deafness there was in the families from which these pupils came may be gathered from the following statement:

In 145 families there were 2 deaf-mutes in each; in 55 families there were 3 deaf-mutes in each; in 14 families there were 4 deaf-mutes in each; in 11 families there were 5 deaf-mutes in each; in 1 family there were 6 deaf-mutes in each; in 2 families there were 7 deaf-mutes in each.

Both parents of these 228 families could hear and speak.

The last and most conclusive argument in support of our theory that deafness is hereditary is derived from the well known fact that parents congenitally deaf have frequently had children born like themselves, without hearing; and the same has been true in many cases when only one parent was born deaf. Without referring to individual cases of hereditary deafness which have come under our observation, we will give a summary of the facts we have collected bearing upon the subject, somewhat in tabular form.

Within the last 18 years there have been at the American Asylum four large gatherings or conventions of educated deaf-mutes on occasions of so much interest as to bring together nearly all living in New England and many from other States. The whole number of deaf-mutes present at these different times, not counting the same person twice, was 740. Each one entered his or her name in the register prepared for that purpose, stating whether married or single; whether to a deaf-mute or hearing person; how many children in the family; and how many of them were deaf and dumb. From these records, carefully collated and classified, we have obtained the following results, including

every family with children, having one or both parents congenital deaf-mutes and no others. They are as follows:

Class.	Parents.	No. of Families.	No. of children.		Total children.
			Deaf.	Hearing.	
1	One hearing and one congenitally deaf.....	30	15	77	92
2	One incidentally and one congenitally deaf.....	56	6	120	126
3	Both congenitally deaf.....	24	17	40	57
	Total.....	110	38	237	275

From this it appears that in the 86 families with one parent a congenital deaf-mute, there were 218 children, of whom 21 were deaf-mutes, or about one-tenth of the whole. In the 24 families with both parents congenital deaf-mutes, there were 57 children, of whom 17 were deaf-mutes, or about one-third of the whole; thus making the proportion of deaf-mute children, of parents both congenitally deaf, more than three times greater than of parents only one of whom is congenitally deaf.

It may be interesting to know what proportion of the families constituted as above had deaf-mute children in them. Arranging them as before we have—

Class.	Parents.	Families.	Families.	
1	One hearing and one congenitally deaf.....	30	One or more deaf mutes in.....	5
2	One incidentally and one congenitally deaf....	56	One or more deaf mutes in.....	4
3	Both congenitally deaf.....	24	One or more deaf mutes in.....	9

The proportion of families having one congenitally deaf parent with at least one deaf-mute child is about one-tenth of the whole, while the proportion of the families having both parents congenitally deaf with a deaf-mute child or children is more than one-third of the whole.

We come now in conclusion to the application of these classes of facts to our theory of propagated deafness. We are unable to obtain from the records referred to the condition of the parents, the grand parents, and more remote progenitors of the pupils in the institutions for deaf-mutes in regard to their hearing, except in a comparatively few cases. Could we ascertain the facts in this direction, we should probably find that deafness, partial at least, had been in the family at some time previous to its more striking development in utter deafness. It is not necessary to our argument to show that the amount of deafness transmitted by the parents should correspond in their children to their own. In many families having among their children two or more born deaf, we have found, as the result of experiments made for that purpose, that there is quite a difference among them in respect to the extent of deafness. While one cannot be made to hear the sound of the human voice another of the same family can perceive and reproduce clear, loud tones; and there may be still others who can hear perfectly. The same is true when either of the parents is partially deaf, and when one both cannot hear at all; showing that the transmission of a slight deviation from the condition of the organs of hearing in the parent may produce partial deafness in the child; while a still further deviation will

in one direction result in entire deafness, and in the other direction in perfect hearing. The instances above cited do, however, show that parents have transmitted this infirmity, that some of their children have been born with partial or entire deafness, and others of them though hearing at first, yet with organs so near the verge of deafness as to readily lapse into it by the further derangement caused by a cold or other slight disease. To what other cause can be ascribed the existence of so much deafness in families and their collateral branches? Many of the assigned causes of incidental deafness seem to be altogether inadequate, while those given as reasons for congenital deafness are in most cases quite unsatisfactory. When certain diseases exist in families, as consumption, scrofula, insanity, and the like, it is generally considered by medical men that they have been transmitted from parents in most cases, or at least the tendency to the disease was inherited. Is it not equally reasonable to suppose that the malady of deafness is inherited either in an abnormal or strumous condition of the internal organs of hearing, preventing from birth their appropriate functions, or leading to the same result by a natural development, or by some disease or accident in early childhood. We are confirmed in this opinion by the causes of incidental deafness assigned by the parents of those brought to us for instruction. We learn from the forty-first report of the American Asylum that the most frequent cause of incidental deafness was, next to scarlet-fever, inflammation, or ulcers in the internal ear. Many were made deaf by a fall, or a blow on the head. Others became deaf in infancy by a cold, or lost hearing gradually without any apparent cause; all going to show that there existed a predisposition to deafness which only required a slight disturbing cause for its full development. The reasons sometimes given by mothers for the congenital deafness of their children, such as a fright, imminent danger, a severe injury, mental impression upon seeing a deaf-mute or hearing his unnatural utterances, must be regarded rather as a coincidence than a cause of the future deafness of the unborn child, especially if the same mother, as it often happens, should afterwards have another deaf-mute without any similar coincidence.

When we consider that few if any of the parents included in the foregoing tables were mutually related before marriage, or had suffered from poverty or exposure to the unfriendly influences of climate or disease; that none of them could have been particularly agitated by anxiety or dread regarding the deafness of their children before their birth, unless perhaps in the case of the hearing parents, of which we have had no intimation, we feel confident that no sufficient cause can be assigned for the deafness existing in these families other than that which has been already indicated as the result of the law of reproduction.

There is one practical question growing out of our subject which officers of institutions for the education of deaf-mutes, and especially those at the head of the department of instruction, ought carefully to consider. Is it their duty to discourage marriages among the congenitally deaf pupils intrusted to their care? Should they endeavor to create among them a public sentiment, that in view of the probability of propagating and increasing the calamity of deafness by such unions they ought never to think of entering the marriage state? We have purposely left incidental deaf-mutes out of the account, as none of their children, so far as we have been able to ascertain, have been congenitally deaf. It may rarely happen otherwise, as it does among hearing and speaking persons; but certainly such a contingency cannot be regarded as a sufficient reason why they should not marry. If a person born deaf marry one who was

not, there is a probability that there may be a deaf-mute among their children. It appears from the last of the foregoing tables that nine out of 86 such families had at least one deaf-mute child, a little more than one-tenth of the whole. The amount of deafness transmitted in such cases is so small that interference can hardly be justified. But if two congenitally deaf-mutes intermarry and have children, the probability that there will be congenital deafness among them becomes so great, (as three to five,) that every consideration of philanthropy, as well as the interests of congenitally deaf persons themselves, should induce their teachers and friends to urge upon them the impropriety of such intermarriages.

At the close of the reading of this paper Mr. Turner stated that they had kept records at the American asylum, showing that the marriages formed between the deaf and dumb, as a general thing, have been happy, or, as is said, successful; they have supported themselves and families in comfortable circumstances, and as a general thing fewer of them than of any other class have become paupers or criminals. In other words, said he, I challenge other classes of society to present as fair a picture of happiness and good order in their families in proportion to their number as can be found among the married deaf and dumb.

The next topic was "initial signs," the eighth paper, read by Mr. I. L. Peet.

Before commencing the reading of the paper Mr. Peet elucidated his subject by rendering in signs the poem which appears at the end of his paper.

#### INITIAL SIGNS.

When we seek to make improvements on a system that has stood the test of a round century in the land of its birth, and of a full half century on this side of the Atlantic, it is evident that we should be sure that we do not make rash innovations, and that what we do should be rather a development of principles well established, than an attempt at progress from a new starting point. If, as we believe, the true principles of instruction have been settled for all time by the labors of the venerated De l'Epee and his able successors, our improvements should be in the way of development and of perfection in details, in what is accessory, not fundamental.

For instance, no one doubts that the instruction of the deaf in articulation offers advantages in cases in which there is rational hope of success, but as both reason and careful observation teach us that the successful cases will be comparatively few, it would be a great misfortune to the bulk of our pupils, if, in a zeal for this accomplishment, we should ignore that medium of instruction which a century of experience has proved to be the natural means of awakening the deaf-mute mind, and which we all know to be an instrument on which, in all cases short of idiocy, we can rely, with far more certainty than on any other, for effecting such a mental and moral development as shall promote the social happiness and usefulness of the deaf-mute, and for imparting as much of skill in the use of written language as the capacity of the individual and the time of instruction will admit.

Instruction in grammar, by means of our philosophical system of symbolic analysis, which, by the labors of successive teachers, has already reached a degree of perfection hardly admitting further improvement, is acknowledged by those who have become familiar with it to be one of the most valuable of our processes of instruction, but this does not lead us to undervalue the importance of the graduated and inductive system of presenting the difficulties of language.

Thus it is that development and improvement, in one direction, should be so planned and carried out as not to interfere with progress in another direction, much less to abandon any valuable acquisition, already made, in our zeal for making new ones.

So, in improving and perfecting the language of signs—the true basis of deaf-mute instruction—we should not propose to disuse any signs that have been well established and have found general acceptance, but rather, as in the case of a spoken language, to follow out the analogies which have developed themselves, to go as fast as and no faster than we find that the deaf-mute mind will accept and assimilate our improvements.

This acceptance would, in fact, be one answer to the question which meets us at the outset: Does the language of signs, as now used in our schools, need any improvement? This question may be answered by answering this other: Is it a perfect or nearly perfect language? The best and most important instrument of instruction we have, as prominent in our profession as the plough is in agriculture, is it as good an instrument as it ought to be and can be made to be?

And here, it seems important to say, that *signs* as a language should be distinguished from *pantomime*. Pantomime is a sort of acting, of imitating movements, forms and positions, of drawing pictures in the air, of simulating the outward manifestations of emotion, which, beyond any other mode of narration or description, has to the eye of the imagination the force of reality. At the beginning of his education, it may be said to be the only means, and, at all times, far the most effective means of securing the attention of the deaf-mute pupil, of impressing a given idea on his memory, and of making him take interest and pleasure in his lessons. It should, therefore, be cultivated by all instructors who wish, so to speak, to inspire the minds of their pupils, and awaken their dormant faculties to pleasant and wholesome life. It is especially useful in narration, in description, and in illustration; and the teacher who is a skilful pantomimist seldom has any difficulty in arousing the faculties and swaying the opinions of his class, or in establishing among them a high intellectual and moral tone.

When, however, we speak of the language of signs, we refer especially to those colloquial expressions in which thought is transmitted rapidly from the hand to the eye, very much as it is in speech from the lips to the ear, in which argument, explanation, condensed narrative, and fancy are presented in continuous discourse without stopping, except now and then for graphic effect, to represent scenes in full, as a painter would sketch them on the canvas.

This language is, of course, ideological, having reference to ideas rather than to words. There are sign phrases and a sign order which have been gradually introduced and established by use, as a result of the association of deaf-mutes with each other. In short, it is a language developed by natural growth. Beginning in an abbreviated pantomime, it still retains the characteristic of pantomime, the giving first the principal idea or figure, and adding the accessories successively. Hence, its syntax differs widely from that of most modern languages, approaching more nearly to the classic tongues of antiquity, but differing again widely from these last, in its lack of inflections.\* By this language the full exhibition of ideas to which pantomime is adapted is reduced to the smallest compass consistent with clearness, and a rapidity is attained

\* By this is meant that inflections are omitted in practice. Signs, as is well known, have long been in existence, and, when necessary, in use, whereby every grammatical modification of a word may be expressed.

which, on familiar subjects, is greater than that of speech and approaches that of thought itself.

To translate from this form of expression into written language requires, first, a comprehension of the idea, and then, such an analysis thereof as shall enable one to reproduce it in the grammatical order of words. Thought first, and language afterwards, is more eminently the rule in the education of the deaf and dumb than with any other class of pupils.

Whether the sign language, as used in the class room, has what may be called a grammatical construction is of no consequence, provided it is capable of expressing an exact thought in so exact a manner that it may be accurately reproduced in written words by one who understands both languages; or, *vice versa*, of conveying the ideas expressed in any given paragraph of the English language. To give this precision to the language of signs is one great object of all efforts at improving it.

Yet it is unquestionably also useful to give the language such a flexibility and copiousness, that it may be used for rendering an English sentence intelligibly, word for word. It has been the practice of the writer, when explaining a lesson taken from a text-book, to make the signs in the order of the words, dwelling on and analyzing each as it became necessary, and then, to give the whole in the vernacular dialect of his pupils, just as he would if it were a conception of his own mind. The latter process secures comprehension of the ideas involved in the sentence as a whole, the former calls attention to the force of the individual words composing it, and to the proper order of their collocation.

To give signs in the order of words pre-supposes a sign for each word. Teachers differ in their practice in this particular, some preferring to use only ideological signs in an ideological order, others confining themselves to making signs in the order of words, and others still, among whom the writer counts himself, using both methods, or either, as convenience or apparent necessity may dictate. It is not the purpose of this paper to revive the old controversy on this subject. The general opinion agrees with that expressed by Dr. H. P. Peet,\* that while the use of signs in the order of words is not indispensable, still it offers advantages in the hands of a skillful teacher. But, whether we favor teaching signs in the order of words or not, it may be safely assumed that the language of signs has not yet attained that copiousness which is required to meet all the demands made upon it in the processes of instruction.

This is evident, first, from the fact that both teacher and pupil are obliged to spell many individual words in the course of any extended remarks either may make.

No doubt the language of signs, as used in our institutions, is capable of interpreting, with more or less of circumlocution and illustration, every word in the English language, copious and refined though the latter has become by the improvements of many centuries, and notwithstanding that the former is of much more recent growth, and has the great disadvantage of not possessing a written form. But this method of interpretation, when ideas not of familiar currency among our pupils are involved, is a rather slow and tedious process. Thought runs mainly in the channels of their usual colloquial dialect. Ideas for which their own language affords no adequate expressions, except in tedious circumlocutions, will not be readily apprehended by them, and hence the written phrases expressing such ideas will be imperfectly comprehended, and used stiffly and awkwardly. The greater the number of signs our pupils have in colloquial use, corresponding to the ordinary generalizations, to the nicer

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\* See articles by Dr. Peet in reply to Mr. Jacobs, "American Annals," vols. x and xi.

shades of meaning, to the peculiar turns of speech, the more readily, correctly and idiomatically will they write.

The colloquial language of signs, as has been intimated, is deficient in general terms. In the New York institution, till within a few years, the general terms of written language were, for the most part, given in signs, by an enumeration of particulars, with a gesture expressive of throwing all these into one. Thus, *personal character* was expressed, or rather defined, as thinking, feeling, and acting right or wrong; *religion*, as thinking and feeling with regard to God; *morality*, as thinking, acting and feeling right or wrong in reference to men. Other sorts of generalization, color, weather, fruit, productions, &c., were equally defined by an enumeration of particulars. This practice originated with De l'Épée and Sicard,\* who, however, endeavored to find in each case a sign more or less simple, to express the general idea, but, probably, most of their general signs were too complicated to obtain currency among the deaf and dumb. When, thirty-five or forty years ago, the views of Degerando prevailed among the younger and more active French and American teachers, the theory was held that the deaf and dumb should be led to read, write and think, in alphabetic language, directly by mental contemplation of its written forms, without necessarily associating words with any particular signs, and without using any signs but those they were content with in colloquial discourse. The result was that the more intelligent and advanced pupils interwove with their colloquial signs many words which they spelled with their fingers, and which they seemed to adopt as signs expressive of general and abstract ideas; but these words did not, in most cases, become so familiar, distinct and manageable to them as a simple sign would have been, nor did they come into as extended use. The *sign* would have become a part of the language which the mass of the pupils used out of the school-room, and when, afterward, the word was interpreted by the sign, or the sign by the word, it would have been indelibly fixed in the understanding and the memory.

Secondly. The deaf and dumb themselves are constantly seeking to enlarge their vocabulary of signs, thus showing their sense of its defectiveness, and a desire to remedy it. They are continually inventing short signs to express general ideas, and they accept and use, with avidity, such signs if convenient and founded on a correct analogy, when offered them by their teachers.

Thirdly. In translating spoken language, *pari passu*, it is difficult to interpret many of the general propositions that abound in verbal discourse, by an enumeration of particulars, and yet keep up with the speaker. By these considerations I think it proved that the language of signs needs cultivation and enlargement, and that the classes of terms in which it has been most deficient are: 1. Abstract terms; and 2. Signs expressive of those nice distinctions of meaning presented by the class of words usually called synonyms, widely different in derivation, it is true, but approaching so nearly in signification, that the deaf and dumb express them colloquially by the same sign, seldom attending to or appreciating their points of difference. By giving to these last distinct signs, we aid greatly in enabling the pupil to individualize them in his own mind, and thus remember their correct use.

And here it may be observed, once for all, that it is not indispensable to the usefulness or acceptability of a sign, that it should be naturally

\* Sicard's celebrated "Theorie des Signes" is merely a collection of definitions of this kind. The simple general signs Mr. Clerc brought from Paris were mainly devised by the deaf and dumb themselves. See Dr. Peet's Historical Sketch in the proceedings of the fifth convention.

expressive. Provided it is simple in form, violates no principle of analogy, and is convenient to remember and make, usage will give it significance, as usage gives significance to the corresponding words.

Another principle of evident importance is that such signs should possess some trait that would be an aid to the memory. To this end, there is no device superior or even equal to the use of the initial letter of the word as part of the sign.

Most of our signs for moral and intellectual ideas, and many for visible objects, are founded on analogies so obvious that similar signs are found to prevail among deaf-mutes in all parts of the world. These signs being taken as the radicals, the combination of an initial letter, taking care to give that enlivening principle of all signs a suitable expression of the countenance, will give us a variety of synonyms corresponding to those of verbal language. In this way, with but little additional burden to the memory, our vocabulary of signs may be greatly extended and made much more precise.

It may be well to add that, according to this system, when a word has several different acceptations a single radical sign is given for all, the peculiar turn of thought being hinted at in the manner and in the expression of countenance. *E. gr.* *Virtue* is *strength* to resist and *power* to effect. Love is *desire* in some cases, and *benevolence* in others.

On the same principle, in the case of a *family* of words, the members of which show such differences of meaning, we use one radical sign, joining to it signs for the inflections which, in connection with the appropriate expression of countenance, shall most nearly suggest the meaning. Take, for instance, the family of words formed on the word *distinguish*. The sign for this word is presented by making the letter *a* with one hand and the letter *d* with the other, placing them together, and then describing with the latter about a third of a circle in the air. This sign bears an analogy to the radical meaning of the word, to separate by marks or tokens, while it is sufficiently indefinite to lend itself, by usage, aided by appropriate gesture and expression, to the various significations of the verb and of its derivatives, *distinct*, *distinction*, *distinguished*. We distinguish some things from others by the sight, by the hearing, by the touch, by the smell, by the taste, by the judgment, by honor or applause, by rewards and even by the reverse. When the word means a setting apart for honor or praise, the curve takes a more upward sweep, and for the adjective *distinct*, the sign for *clear* is added. I will cite from Webster's Dictionary a few illustrations of this family of words, for the sake of showing, by actual illustration, how one radical sign may be adapted to all the different but allied significations of a family of words :

We observe a *distinction* between matter and spirit.

Maid, women, wives, without *distinction*, fall.

In classing the qualities of actions, it is necessary to make accurate *distinctions*.

No more can you *distinguish* of a man than of his outward show.

Homer and Virgil are *distinguished* as poets, Demosthenes and Cicero as orators.

In giving these illustrations, the writer has been betrayed into anticipating a position which would naturally come later in the presentation of this subject. He, therefore, turns to the exemplification of the signs for synonyms, in which several distinct words of kindred meaning are represented by combinations of different initial letters with one radical sign.

The following have *help* for their radical, the initial being added with the left hand: *aid*, *assist*, *advantage*, *important*, *support*.

It is not without design that I have introduced together three words beginning with the same letter. The signs you see me make illustrate,



on the one hand, the principle of using initial letters, and on the other that of ideological variations of movement.

And here I would explain, that I cannot undertake in the compass of this paper, or in the brief time I can find for its preparation, to give descriptions of signs. Such descriptions may possibly be given hereafter. All I can do now is to give the signs themselves, corresponding to a select number of words.

The following are founded on *law*:

*Rule, axiom, maxim, principle, doctrine, dogma*, the last two having, combined with this radical, the signs for *teaching* and *thinking*.

The following have *feeling* for this radical:

*Morality, religion, character, conscience, honesty*, being represented by placing the initial letter in a peculiar manner on the heart, the metaphorical seat of emotion.

The following are based upon *whole*:

*All, complete, entire, perfect*.

The following upon *clean*:

*Neat, pure, holy*.

The following have *figurativeness* for their essential:

*Symbol, emblem, type, metaphor, allegory*.

*Stay* is the root of the following:

*Continue, dwell, reside, abide, state*.

Here it is to be remarked that the sign for the prefix *con* is made with both hands, each forming the letter *c*.

*Death* shows itself as the radix in the following:

*Perish, perishable, perdition, mortal, mortality*.

In this connection it may be proper to observe that prefixes *in, im, un, &c.*, are designated by the sign for negative, thus: *immortal, imperishable, unchangeable*.

On the sign for *confess* are founded *acknowledge, own, avow*, that last having *v* for its distinguishing letter.

On *respect*, are formed, *honor, worship, dignity*.

*Yield* is the radix on which are formed, *obey, admit, grant, allow*.

*Obligation* gives *duty, debt*.

*Class* gives *genus, species, kind, sort*, and by a slight change, *society*.

Around *responsibility* are grouped *authority, blame, fault, merit*.

*Growth* gives *vegetable, fruit, production, &c.*

*Found* is the radix on which are formed, *foundation, establish, institution, church*.

*Globe* gives *world, sphere, orb, &c.*

*Strength* gives *virtue, force, power, &c.*

The sash over the left shoulder, worn as a badge of high authority, gives the various titles, *king, queen, prince, duke, earl, marquis, count, baronet*.

The simple radical *tell* gives, with slight variations the signs for *declare, celebrate, proclaim, say* and many others.

*Large* gives *great, big, quantity, bulk, size, &c.*

*How* gives us *quality, nature, mode, manner* and the like.

*New* gives *strange, fresh, virgin*.

*The sky*, as in most other languages, is the root of *heaven, heavenly, celestial, &c.*

We will now pass to another class of signs, in which the initial letter is made to perform so prominent a part, that it may be regarded as the base, as in the old signs of *Wednesday* and the other days of the week, for *water*, for *vanity*, for *people*, and for some of the colors. While to many of these the analogy of form or movement gives a peculiar sig-

nificance, there are others whose significance is due mainly or wholly to usage.

*Metal* we express by putting the index finger of the right hand on an *m* formed by the fingers of the left; and *metalloid*, by crossing the *m* with the index finger. Different metals might be represented on the same principle, but as many of them have already fixed signs, it is unnecessary to make a change in regard to them.

*Time* follows the analogy of the signs for *day*, *year*, *always*, &c., and is expressed by the letter *t* revolving once in a large circle. The same principle is applied to *ever*, *perpetual*, *eternity*, &c.

The sign for *work* is one of our oldest and vaguest general signs. It has been variously used for such words as *exert*, *exercise*, *perform*, *act*, *do* and *labor*. Under the present system, *work* does not constitute the radical for the expression of these ideas, but the initial letter, moved in an expressive way, is made the base.

The letter *i*, with the movement of the lever given to it, denotes instrument.

The letter *p* made with the right hand starting from the forehead, and ploughing under the left hand placed horizontally, with the back of it uppermost, gives *philosophy*. The movement is ideological—intellect making its way below the mere surface of things, and the initial letter, by its peculiar shape, illustrates the conception, at the same time that it suggests the spelling.

*Noble*, *generous*, *magnanimous*, *benevolent*, are indicated by the initial letter made with the right hand clapped upon the left breast, and followed by a horizontal wave of the hand. An equally good, perhaps preferable sign might be made, by substituting for the wave with the right hand, an expanding or swelling movement of both hands.

A combination of the sign for *figurative*, with a *p* coming upon the heart gives *poetry* and its cognates.

For *nation*, we are indebted to Dr. Thomas Gallaudet, who makes the *n* of the right hand trace a little circle upon the surface of the left hand clenched to represent the globe.

*Air*, *atmosphere*, and *weather*, are formed with their initials in combination with significant movements. The last two require to have the initial made with both hands.

*Animal* and *beast* are also distinguished by their initials.

*Distinguish* and its cognates, already given, may serve as a type of this whole class of signs.

Personal signs, or signs used to designate individuals, which, from their great numbers, can no longer represent peculiarities, are made with initials. Some are pure initials, merely vibrated in the air. The greater number are made by resting or shifting the initials on or about some part of the person. Thus they can be made to distinguish between two persons whose names bear the same initials, by reference to personal appearance, dress, office or station. The sign for Washington is a type of this class. I would advise that pains be taken, in every institution, to form the signs for new pupils by means of the initials of their names made on some prominent part of the face or dress. In this way, while the sign will recall the personal appearance, the sign and the name will mutually suggest each other, and both will thus be more easily remembered. In the New York institution, we have many examples of such personal signs.

The writer thinks that whatever the merits or demerits of this system may be, it is allowable to him to claim, in a modified sense, the authorship of most of the signs he has indicated, as well as of many others of

the like composition. For some years, as teacher of intelligent classes of deaf-mutes, he has labored to extend and improve the language of signs and has been enthusiastically aided by his pupils. To them he has been indebted for many suggestions, and he has never decisively adopted any new sign without first testing it by submitting it to their instinctive perceptions of fitness, surer, in such cases, than his own judgment. In many instances, he had received valuable aid from their criticisms, and has been obliged to try and try again before he could satisfy them. In these discussions, signs have been suggested by individual deaf-mutes, which have been at once adopted, the sign already given for philosophy being one. It may be, that when subjected to a wider criticism, many of these signs may give place to others that may be devised, more significant or convenient, and hence more useful. It is not the particular form of his signs to which the writer attaches much importance. The *principle* he has endeavored to describe and illustrate is one which he thinks valuable, and which he trusts will survive when many of the particular forms of signs may be forgotten.

Of the value of the principle he has felt convinced from the fact that many of the signs formed on it have been adopted by the pupils of the institution with which he is connected, and are there in common colloquial use. He has, moreover, tried the experiment of giving to an intelligent deaf-mute, who had not been conversant with the individual signs, but to whom he explained the principle, more than 200 consecutive words taken from the columns of a dictionary, at a single sitting, and found him able to spell the words correctly from the combination of the ideological gesture and initial letter, making only three mistakes.

He feels justified, therefore, in offering this principle for improving the sign language, with, whatever may be valuable in his own labors in carrying it out to his brethren in the profession, as his humble contribution to the advancement of the cause we have met to promote, hoping that they will thoroughly test it by experiment. He feels sure that if it passes this ordeal they will adopt it.

The following little poem, by a well-known man of letters of New York,\* has been recited, sign for word, at some of our public exhibitions, by a young lady distinguished for sprightliness and grace, with such pleasing effect that it seemed to indicate that what are called systematic signs may be so used as to render the thoughts of the poet and orator with much of their own significance, while adding new graces appropriate to the new medium in which they are reproduced. It will be observed that it contains more than 150 different words, to each of which, with its inflection, if it has any, a distinct sign is given.

The writer will repeat it in signs, while his friend reads the words, for the sake of exemplifying some of the points he has made:

Scarcely can God's strange restriction,  
On the lip and on the ear,  
By my mind be deemed affliction,  
From the sad world coming here.

Where I dwell, those clamors mortal,  
Anger, scorn, detraction, woe,  
Through the ear's unguarded portal,  
Throng in ceaseless overflow.

Here, God sets his unseen angels  
At the gate where earth comes through—  
Naught but Heaven's most sweet evangel  
Those pure guards let in to you.

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\* Fitz Hugh Ludlow.

Where I dwell, our thoughts unruly  
 Have no time to pause and sleep  
 Till their step beats tune truly  
 With the march that Love doth keep.

Here, the flying thought, unspoken,  
 In review floats past the heart,  
 Where its sting is gently broken,  
 Ere its rapid wings depart.

God hath blessed you in your losses,  
 Silent daughter of his care,  
 Lifting many bitter crosses  
 From your shoulders, which we bear.

Though no songs your ear are filling  
 Such as move us to delight,  
 Thoughts unstained by earth are thrilling  
 Your soul's chambers day and night.

And to think! to think what glory  
 Waits you in those wondrous peals  
 From the harps of prophets hoary  
 When God's handyoursense unseals!

The great singers gone before us  
 Wait to flood your virgin ear  
 With their unimagined chorus  
 As the first sound you shall hear!

These same angel guards that cover  
 From the world your unjarred sense  
 Are God's harpers, and they hover  
 Waiting with your recompense.

On motion of Mr. Gillett, it was voted that the paper just read be referred to a committee with instructions to present a resolution upon it. Messrs. Gillett, Palmer, and McIntire were appointed as the committee. The next paper in order was one read by Prof. Pratt on

#### THE COLLEGE AND ITS RELATIONS TO OUR INSTITUTIONS.

The general and growing interest in the subject of the education of the deaf is full of promise and hope to this large and increasing class. Already the discussions respecting methods of instruction have directed attention to their numbers and wants and stimulated to new efforts in their behalf.

If we may accept the partial investigations reported by the Massachusetts Board of State Charities as furnishing a safe basis for estimating the number of deaf-mutes in the United States, there are at the present time over 25,000. Some present to-day may live to see the time when the population of the United States shall be 100,000,000, and the number of deaf-mutes 65,000. It is for us to lay plans broad and comprehensive to meet the wants of this great number. The subject of their education is one of first importance. In no country is its importance greater than in our own. The stability of our government depends upon the diffusion of knowledge. Ours is a concern in which every man is regarded as an equal partner. The vote of an illiterate deaf man weighs as much as that of the most intelligent man in the community. The education of every class becomes an incumbent duty. Whatever can be urged in favor of the education of the masses in general, has peculiar force in the advocacy of the necessity of education for the deaf and dumb; for while by social intercourse and by the ordinary interchange of thought the otherwise uneducated masses who can hear and speak

may receive knowledge of the current thought, be informed of the political, social, and religious questions that stir the public mind and call for decision and action from every member of society, may listen to the arguments of the most educated and be prepared to act their part more or less intelligently according to the community in which they dwell, the uneducated deaf-mute moves an ignorant spectator, shut out from all means of information of the thoughts that stir and the words that burn; even in communities of the highest advancement incapable of independent conclusions or action.

Admit the necessity of education for the masses, and that almost necessarily carries with it the necessity for higher education for those who are to lead public opinion, make discoveries in science, advance new thought, elevate the standard and teach the common people. Hence colleges spring up wherever a regard is paid to general education. There must be profound and scientific culture somewhere, in some portion of community at least, in order to the perpetuity and vitality of even the common information of society. There must be a portion more highly educated who shall lead on those who are just beginning their course. Some place must be provided where this liberal culture can be secured. To provide such a place for the deaf and dumb was the object in the establishment of the National Deaf-mute College. The same arguments that would be urged for the organization of colleges generally apply in this case, this being specially adapted to educate the deaf-mute because there is no other provision for them. A large number of youth are found in the land capable, as it is believed, of receiving a finished education, who cannot avail themselves of the opportunities offered so bountifully in other colleges, hence this special provision for them. This attempt involves no new principle, marks out for itself no essentially different course of study, advances no radical changes, only takes the advanced theories of instruction and applies them to a particular class.

The aim of this college may be shown by considering the aim of colleges generally. As we understand it, colleges are designed to give a general education, classical, literary, and scientific, as comprehensive as an education can well be which is professedly preparatory alike for all professions and pursuits. They afford the means of instruction in the branches with which it is desirable for young men to have a general acquaintance before directing their attention to a particular course of professional study such as is pursued at the separate schools, law, divinity, and medical. The course of study selected is that which is fitted to train *men* for all the duties and offices of life, in that general culture which an education in a profession presupposes and which a man without a profession pre-eminently requires in order to be a practical man. The great object of a collegiate education is to give expansion and balance to all the mental powers, liberal and comprehensive views, and well-adjusted proportions of character. In laying the foundation for a thorough education the college deems it necessary that all the important mental faculties be called into exercise. In the course of study which has prevailed in England and the United States regard is paid to the harmonious development of all the mental powers. Hence mathematics are taught to give the art of demonstrative reasoning; physical science and history, facts, processes of induction, and varieties of probable evidence; ancient literature, the finished models of taste; English reading, powers of one's own language; logic and mental philosophy, the art of thinking; rhetoric, the art of writing; written composition, copiousness and accuracy of expression; discussions, debates, and declamations, promptness, fluency, and animation; political science, relations of man to man; aesthetics,

taste and love of beauty; and moral philosophy and theology, the eternal interests of man and his relation to his Maker. All these branches the greatest minds in England and the United States have decided to be most important for intellectual discipline and development of the resources of the mind.

The aim is first to give an education which will develop the *mind itself*, irrespective for the time being of the uses which may be made of learning, knowing that if there only be produced within the youth the power to work, the occasions and the incitements to exercise it will not be wanting. The object is to invigorate and discipline the mind and prepare it to grapple with whatever subject may come in its way, and to search out truth in whatever path of industry its subsequent course may be; thus to make it a fountain of power and influence prepared to communicate from its abundance to others.

This education and development is rarely obtained except in colleges where it is made the special end. Few become liberal and finished scholars except through such training. The combined wisdom of many centuries is in this as the means most in accordance with the laws of the mind. In many particulars a self-taught man may surpass others; but in most he is an untaught man. Particularly is the necessity of such a thorough and comprehensive process of training manifest for the deaf and dumb, for they are cut off from the ordinary means of self-teaching. They need as do other students the quickening influence of association with others who are pursuing the same course of study, and a corps of instructors, each one having his own special branch of study—whose number shall be large enough to secure variety of intellectual culture and incitement. They need as do other students the abrading influence of college life; friction with other minds, active and ardent as their own, in recitation, in debate, on the play-ground; the training of law and the restraint of authority; that exorcismences of character may be worn off and that they may be prepared to choose wisely their life's work.

It certainly cannot be claimed that the deaf-mute needs systematic and thorough training less for the development of his powers than his speaking companion, nor can it be claimed that the education afforded by the various State institutions, however good of its kind that may be, is or can be equal to that of our best colleges. It must be admitted that the deaf-mute in acquiring knowledge labors under special disadvantages, is peculiarly dependent upon teachers, needs vastly more than others of his age general and comprehensive views and knowledge of primary and fundamental truths, needs to be enlarged and broadened and grounded in principles, needs the balance of character which can only come from the training of the various powers of the mind, needs mathematics, science, language, philosophy. It must be admitted also that the institutions in the limited time allowed them can only give the rudiments of education, in the language of Mr. Turner in his paper advocating higher education, "only the ability to read and write the ordinary style of letters, narratives and conversations more or less correctly, without being able to comprehend the import of elaborate essays on elevated subjects," and even if the time were extended, and the few, two or three in each institution, who desire and are capable of pursuing an advanced course were suffered to remain four years beyond the time now allowed for the high classes as established in some institutions, still that would not, however competent might be their teachers, afford them the advantages, the stimulus and discipline of a college. It would substitute at the best a good private tutor for a college. While it must be thus admitted that the deaf mute needs all the advantages of a liberal education and cannot

secure them in the institution, it is also true that he must compete in life with those who have had every advantage that the advancement of civilization can afford. Everywhere he must struggle for his place, conscious oft times that in mental ability he is the superior of many of his fellows who easily succeed; and such has been the disadvantage heretofore that for *lack of education* most of the best scholars of our schools have been thrust into inferior and subordinate positions, simply because their education does not qualify them for that which is higher, and because no means had been provided by which they could secure the needed qualification.

Almost every argument that can be used in favor of a college education at all can be employed with greater force in favor of such an education for the deaf-mute. Does success in life depend upon the degree and kind of education? Eminently so with the deaf-mute. Does the power of influencing others depend upon the education? The deaf-mute is almost isolated by the deficiencies of his education. Does position depend upon education? There is hardly any position outside of mechanical and physical employment that the mute, as ordinarily trained, is fitted to fill. Do character, manhood, moral growth, depend upon a broad and liberal and comprehensive education? If these questions must be answered affirmatively for those who have all the advantages of hearing and speech, and all the training and education incident to those, then how much more for the mute. It cannot be claimed that by virtue of his deprivation he is so superior that he does not need what is essential for others. Colleges are needed for completing the education of others, why not for him? Does he leap at one bound without the intermediate agency to the full development of his powers?

The question may be and often is asked, whether the deaf and dumb are capable of mastering the studies of a college. By no means all are; but no teacher of deaf-mutes doubts that some are. We have always regarded them as possessed of intellectual endowments equal to those of others, and their deficiency to have been deficiency of development merely. The progress made by them in all schools, in spite of their disadvantages, is sufficient proof of their capability. Every teacher has been so convinced of this that he has felt regret, as his best pupils have left the institution, that their education must stop with such unfinished and fragmentary attainments. Then the attainments of the few whose thirst for knowledge has afterwards carried them through all the difficulties of acquisition, through self-help, are sufficient to prove the native ability of the mind of the deaf and dumb. The experience of the four years since the college was inaugurated, while it has not by any means reached the standard we have in mind, has been sufficient to convince all who have been familiar with its results of powers worthy of all the provisions here offered. The course of studies pursued, the appreciation of analytical processes; the comprehension of abstract and general truths, the examinations sustained, have evinced talent to which many who have watched our course can testify. In our judgment there need be a special college for them only because the method of teaching them is different from that employed in colleges generally—only because they cannot hear. We would not have a course special in any accommodation to them except as to means, not as to matter or thoroughness; with perhaps this qualification in the present state of the preparatory work, that special reference should be paid to the careful and systematic study of the English language, and of this it is hoped by the advancement of the course in the various institutions much shall pass away, and that the sole difference between us and other colleges

shall be that we speak to the eye instead of the ear. It is time that instructors of the deaf and dumb should themselves get rid of the notion and rid the community of the idea that the deaf are a peculiar and separate and inferior class—that they are *dummies*. They are men and women peculiar in this, that their minds must be reached through a different avenue, not that their minds are different; peculiar as scholars only that their education has stopped at such a point that they are mere children. The notion of former times was that they were incapable of education; that has long since been exploded. The institutions of the world have proved the practicability of a common education for them. Who shall fix a limit between the studies of the academy and the college, and say to the deaf-mute, “Hitherto shalt thou come, but no further.”

The question is asked, what is the advantage of such an education as is proposed; what can the educated mute do; what new spheres of life are open to him by means of this training? Our prime consideration is not to qualify students for any particular position in life. That is a very narrow and low view of education that is calculated in dollars and cents. The object here, as in other colleges, is to give an opportunity to those who cannot avail themselves of the abundant provision made in every part of the country—for the fuller development of mental power. In the various institutions are found minds capable of the highest development, conscious of their own needs, and thirsting for an opportunity to gain the knowledge and power possessed by others. Provision is to be made for these so that whatever may be their future position in life, whether in the learned professions or not, they may be men in the full meaning of that term, prepared to take the part of men in thought, in investigation, in discovery and in action, prepared to exert everywhere the influence of educated and well-balanced characters. The object is to furnish these the opportunity to stand, as far as may be, in fair competition with those now more favored in the struggles of life, to set aside obstacles only partially removed by any less thorough system of education, and to give them a chance to show to the world for themselves what they can do. They ask no special favors, need none, only to be allowed a fair chance in the arena of life. As has been before said of colleges in general, the object here is to develop the mind itself, without regard at first to the uses which may be made of learning, knowing that if there be produced the power to work, the occasions to exercise it will not be wanting in a world that is full of work. A habit of thinking is worth far more than a thousand of the thoughts to which the habit might lead—the increase of power far more than a multitude of things accomplished by the power—a *man* far more than any *position* he occupies.

But the students coming hither are from all parts of our country, and the number here at any one time is not likely to be more than four or five from each State; it would indicate a marvellous *surfeit* if the various industries and activities of each State did not demand and could not absorb the addition of four or five educated deaf men every year. The college training does not disqualify for any useful occupation. The course of study is not specially adapted to any one class or to any one pursuit in life. Those who aim at active employments need the education of college as well as those who enter the professions. This is being more and more understood and acted upon in this country, and those who design to become manufacturers and agriculturists are seeking the discipline and thorough training of the college to fit them for their pursuits. The range is that which every influential person should possess. Business men are the very ones to reduce the principles of science and philosophy to their practical application. They need superior education, large, lib-



eral views, solid and elegant attainments to enable them to adorn society by their learning, move in intellectual circles, and to make such application of their powers as shall be most honorable to themselves and most beneficial to their country and race. The greater the impulse to action the greater the need of wise and skilful guidance. If a man is to engage in mechanical employments let him be thoroughly taught the principles of his art, that he may become an intelligent workman, well versed in the laws of nature, and able most efficiently to avail himself of her aid. If he is to be an agriculturist, let him not be content to till his land as his fathers have done before him, but be enabled, by a skilful application of the principles of science, to triumph over the obstacles of nature and with more truth than ever "to subdue the earth." Especially is a higher education needed for the deaf-mute, that he may gain those fundamental principles from direct instruction which others find everywhere current; be put more nearly upon a level with those who can hear, and acquire by superior knowledge that influence which his native talent fits him to exert, but which he cannot communicate for want of sufficient language. For all the ordinary and common employments of life, the deaf-mute needs thorough training, such as can come only from the study of various branches, that he may have possession of technical and scientific terms and idiomatic expressions.

But our answer is not given in this general way because it is difficult to suggest positions that our graduates will be qualified to fill, but to assert what is common to all such attempts, that our primary object is not to fit for place but to make men. If, however, we turn to consider the practical advantages of a collegiate education to those deaf-mutes capable of receiving it and to speak of positions that may be open to them in future which they cannot now fill, I may quote from the published statement in our catalogue of 1866 written by our president:

The difficulties encountered in the instruction of mutes make it necessary to employ one teacher for each 15 or 20 pupils. Three thousand children in school at one time would then demand the constant attention of from 150 to 200 instructors.

To meet the vacancies naturally occurring in this number of teachers by reason of resignation, removal, or death, an accession of at least 15 would be required annually, creating a demand in the very institutions from which they come for the services of a large proportion of the yearly graduates of the college.

In reply to the possible question whether a high degree of intellectual culture is an essential qualification of an instructor of the deaf and dumb, it may be stated as the result of an experience of 50 years in this country, that while, in what may be termed the infant classes, teachers of especial natural fitness may be satisfactorily employed who have not received the benefits of a liberal education, in a majority of the classes success can only be attained by instructors who have secured the acquisitions and mental discipline afforded in a collegiate course of training.

And it is equally true that the efficiency and usefulness of teachers, even of the elementary classes, would be increased were their own grade of attainments raised above its present standard.

No error can be greater, nor more hurtful, wherever it exercises any authority, than the supposition that it is an easy task to impart the *elements of knowledge* to the deaf and dumb, or that their teachers need no other qualifications than an acquaintance with the sign language, added to those which might suffice for a teacher in a primary school for the hearing and speaking.

The difficulties encountered in opening the darkened and bewildered mind of the deaf-mute to the intricacies of written language cannot be adequately described in words, and all who fairly consider the subject, having had an insight into the methods necessarily employed, will, it is believed, be ready to admit that the successful instruction of the deaf and dumb takes rank, as an intellectual achievement, with the highest efforts of the human mind.

The following extracts from the 14th and 15th annual reports of the directors of the New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb (1832-3) are worthy of consideration in this connection:

"We all know the difficulty of acquiring an unknown tongue. We all know the perplexities which obstruct our progress in the endeavor to acquaint ourselves with the Latin or the German. And how few among those who can *read* these and other languages with

facility, can write or speak either. Yet we have, in the very beginning, an instrument to aid us which gives us an advantage over the deaf and dumb, like that which the mechanical powers afford above mere animal strength, directly exerted. This instrument is grammar—for grammar is not peculiar to any individual language, but extends itself in all its essential principles over the whole field of artificial communication. In acquiring the French or the German, we have only to substitute new names and new inflections for others already known. We construct a machine of new materials, with certain trivial modifications, upon a model before our eyes, but the deaf and dumb have yet to learn the principles on which the machine was originally constructed. They have not merely to translate, but to invent. Are not talents, are not ingenuity and mental discipline necessary in the man whose task is to lead them onward in this process of invention? Few persons understand how artificial, how intricate, in fact how anomalous are the combinations of words upon their lips every hour of the day. Their knowledge of language has been imperceptibly acquired, and they do not reflect that this language is a structure which has been growing more complicated since time began. No person, in fact, can be conversant with the deaf and dumb for any space of time without being convinced that to teach them even the elements of language, requires a greater knowledge of the workings of the human mind, a more philosophical acquaintance with the great medium of communication, and a more thorough intellectual discipline on the part of the instructor than is required in any other branch of education.

"Talent and thorough education on the part of their teachers they (the directors) have regarded as absolutely essential. In fact, in the education of deaf-mutes, they can hardly conceive complete success without these qualifications. The nature of the task, indeed, is as widely different from what it may appear to the superficial observer, as order is remote from chaotic confusion, or as the certainty of science is exalted above the vagueness of conjecture. To him whose business it is to convey to the minds of children, possessing the privilege of speech, the rudiments of knowledge, an acquaintance with mental philosophy, or a familiarity with metaphysical inquiries, however desirable, is not deemed indispensable. And why? It belongs to him to impart facts, and not principles; knowledge, and not the artificial medium through which the same knowledge is to be made to reappear. It is easy to find instructors of the deaf, possessing, to as high a degree of perfection as the deaf themselves, the power of communicating to others facts of whatever description, independently of sound, while they may still be incompetent to the execution of the task to which they are summoned. And the reason is, simply, that this great task consists in teaching, not facts, but language; the power of communicating thought through a medium entirely novel, constructed on philosophical principles, out of materials having no peculiar adaptation in nature to the purposes which they are made to fulfil. To the instructor of deaf-mutes, therefore, the philosophy of language in general is of more consequence than the nomenclature of any one in particular, and the study of *mind in its faculties and its operations* is essential to success."

To perform the double office of opening to mutes higher possibilities in the position of teacher, and to furnish a reliable source whence the institutions may secure talented and well-qualified instructors, is one of the aims of the college; one which would of itself warrant all the contemplated expenditure of labor and money.

Successful teaching requires a disciplined mind, the power of tracing effects to a cause, of making nice discriminations, of concentrating attention upon a single object, of combining truth in a system. Shall they not, from their own difficulties, be able to apprehend more thoroughly the difficulties of their scholars, and adopt means of relief? Educated teachers are needed in the profession, and the chief unfitness of the deaf and dumb has been the want of a thorough education.

Probably the number of positions from which they will be debarred forever on account of deafness is much smaller than would at first be thought, and if we are to believe the marvels accomplished by the teaching of articulation claimed for it by its enthusiastic advocates, this number will hereafter be greatly reduced. If we except the three professions, ministry, law, and medicine, what position requiring literary and scientific education is not open to them? Not to attempt to enumerate but a few, they can be editors, authors, clerks, accountants, chemists, draughtsmen, designers, architects, engineers, bankers; can hold public offices, like that of recorder of deeds, registers, and notaries public. Almost all literary and scientific pursuits would be opened to them.

It may seem to many to savor of enthusiasm to anticipate distinctive triumphs of genius in the higher education of the deaf, but it is shadowed forth as a possibility, from our experience and observation, that special

results may flow from their powers of concentration and ability to work without interruption, and from their thorough study of language. With them each step is toilsome, and requires an analysis of language, such as many who receive it by acquiescence and daily intercourse with others never give. Is it not possible that these who enter into a knowledge of language by an abnormal process may discover more of its peculiarities and structure and philosophy than those who acquire facility of expression almost unconsciously? A blind man discovered the method of measuring the waves of light in the different colors, and we had reason to expect that one of our students, now deceased, who was deaf from infancy, would, from his study of the principles of the English language, have revealed much that would have been valuable to others. And then, in the fields of science and careful investigation, may we not anticipate that their power to work without distraction from surrounding objects is to be crowned with abundant success?

It has been objected by an instructor of the deaf and dumb that we are attempting to educate them out of their sphere. If their sphere is a half-educated state, then we are certainly open to the charge of attempting to educate them out of it. If this objection means that a college education will tend to lift them up to a position in advance of what the class has hitherto held, we reply that is what we hope to do. If it is meant that they belong to a peculiar caste above which they must not rise, we reply that there is no safe lodgment for such an idea in all this vast country since slavery was abolished. It is an idea derogatory to manhood, degrading and blasphemous. It is, wherever entertained, the bane of deaf-mute instruction, a noxious thing that must be wholly uprooted before progress can be healthy and vigorous. It might as well be claimed that farmers' sons ought not to go to college, lest they be educated out of their sphere. These deaf-mutes are not pariahs, they are of us, bone of our bone, of our cultivated families, fitted to adorn society and honor their Maker, and they should have all the advantage that is afforded by the best instruction in the land. Since they are deprived of some advantages, compensation should be made as far as it be in our power, and they should be educated for the highest ranks of life, and regarded as the equals of their brothers and sisters; if it were possible, should be educated side by side with their brothers, and have the same opportunities.

Again it is objected that the common education of the institution is sufficient, that the mute is thus fitted to secure a livelihood, and that is all that can be expected of him. This is equivalent to declaring the mute, because of his infirmity, unworthy to enjoy the advantages bestowed upon others, unworthy the privilege of mingling with scholars as an equal, unworthy the joy of mental acquisition and triumph, unworthy the refinement and culture of literature and science and art. It is probably overlooked that this objection holds equally well against any advance or improvement—the lowest equally with the highest. There are many stalwart mutes who have received no education who can by manual labor earn their support, therefore, they need no school. When Dr. Gallaudet undertook to establish a school for them, how potent an argument it would have been against his visionary schemes that they can plod along well enough without this expenditure in their behalf, they will be deaf and dumb after all. So at the establishment of the high classes, the same objections might have been urged against any advance in academic studies. The objection is unworthy any intelligent man, unworthy the age.

If we pass now to consider the relations of the college to the various

State institutions, we shall find them to be those of mutual dependence and co-operation. They are not conflicting or opposed. Each has its own proper work to do. The one cannot do the work of the other. The two are not independent of each other, like two different machines, but are living members of the same body, and, therefore, the one cannot say to the other, "I have no need of thee." Of the difficulty of the institutions attempting to educate the few in the higher branches, let me quote from Mr. Turner's paper advocating the high school, read before the second convention held in Hartford in 1851, page 24 of the published proceedings:

In saying this, we would not be thought to speak disparagingly either of the existing institutions for the deaf and dumb, or those who are engaged in teaching them. We know that these institutions are, in general, well managed, and are answering the important ends for which they were established. We also know that those who teach in them are well qualified by their talents, education, and skill to carry forward their pupils to any desirable extent. But until classes of pupils can be kept for a longer time than six years under instruction, we shall not expect to see much more accomplished than is at present. It is true that the time for which pupils are permitted to remain in these institutions is not limited, and that a few do remain seven or eight years. The best arrangement is made for the improvement of such which can be consistently with more important interests, and with the present organization of the schools. But it cannot be expected that the whole time of an experienced teacher should be devoted to three or four pupils of this description. Nor can they be expected to prosecute their studies, even under the best instructors, with the zeal and success they would if they were more favorably situated. They will of necessity feel that they are staying beyond the ordinary term of instruction; that the government and discipline of the institution are adapted to a different class of pupils. Having but few associates of their own standing, there will be little of that generous emulation so necessary to successful study. Comparing themselves with the multitudes below them in attainments, with some of whom they may perhaps be classed, they will be in danger of becoming proud of what they know, instead of being ambitious of knowing more. Their position would be very much like that of a young man who should attempt the acquirement of a college education in one of our academies or high schools. His teachers might be competent to aid him, and he might spend in study the usual time allotted to a college course; but it would be little short of a miracle if the result equalled his expectations. The circumstances under which he would labor to acquire knowledge are unfavorable to success. The atmosphere with which he would be surrounded is uncongenial to healthy action. He would lack the stimulus of ardent competitors of college honors and college fame. The deaf-mute who attempts to prosecute his studies in any of our institutions much beyond the range of the regular classes will meet with similar embarrassments. What he needs is a school expressly provided for him and for others in his circumstances, a high school for the deaf and dumb.

If the institutions are flourishing the college will not languish, it requires them as its auxiliaries. Every reasonable effort should be put forth to improve and perfect them. Too much pains can hardly be expended in sustaining and protecting them. They lie at the foundation of the higher education. A defect here extends through all the following stages.

Bad or good habits are here formed and strengthened. A direction is given which determines the destiny. It would be of the highest advantage could the course in the institutions be lengthened both by establishing in every institution younger classes and beginning with all two or three years earlier, and also by forming high classes for the most talented, as at Hartford and New York, giving to these latter the full time of one or more experienced and capable teachers, and adapting the course of study for those who design to enter college to the examination required for admission there. Three years of preparatory training is needed; the toil of the ascent should there be ended; the student be so trained that he shall be able to use thorough text-books, and be already prepared to look out upon a wider horizon. It would be desirable to secure harmony of action in this latter division in all the institutions, so that the students coming hither to enter any one class might be of similar attainments and training; otherwise those of superior preparation

must be classed with others much inferior, and thus the whole standard is depressed. If the standard of the institutions is low we must take up the work where they drop it; if they advance, as we trust they will, and that rapidly, then the college is enabled to assume sooner the position marked out for it, and which will place it fully on the level with the best in the land. And we feel assured the college will make full return. It will enrich the soil from which it draws its nutriment. It cannot stand alone. It will awaken the spirit of education, will tend to systematize courses of instruction, be the means of establishing high classes, excite ambition among the pupils, furnish a class of educated teachers who have been trained together, who will sympathize with and stimulate each other, and furnish examples of cultivated and refined young men in its graduates who will return to visit their old schools. One student who leaves an institution for college will induce some of his companions, who otherwise would not have had sufficient ambition to prepare to go with him, and many others who cannot go will sympathize with him in his literary spirit. Obvious and lasting is the impetus he may give to the mental character of his former companions. He in time becomes a teacher in his own institution and will impart to young minds the benefits of his generous culture. From the conversations and correspondence and high aims of these scholars there must diverge a quickening influence into all parts of the country. Is not this reflex action needed by the institutions? And then their influence upon the whole class of mutes will be very great. They will be the leaders and controllers of public sentiment among them. The effect of the high classes has been good upon the mutes from the same institution; the college will send out an educated class, representatives from the various institutions, to raise the tone and sentiment through all the communities and society of the deaf and dumb. The higher will give an impetus to the lower—a fire in the attic brings upward the air from the basement—and the standing of mutes as a class will be materially raised by its examples of cultivated and finished scholars. At the inauguration of this college in 1864, Hon. James W. Patterson, now senator of the United States, then professor in Dartmouth College, used these words, "Gladly do I welcome your institution to the circle of colleges and your faculty to the fellowship of scholars devoted to kindred labors." And Rev. D. R. Goodwin, D. D., provost of the University of Pennsylvania, wrote, "As I cannot be with you in person, I desire to send to the new institution on this day of its joyful birth, or rather of its transformation to a higher form and state of being, most cordial greetings and congratulations, not only in my own name but in the name of the colleges and the universities of the country, so far as I may be allowed to represent their wishes and sentiments." Similar sentiments have been uttered again and again by scholars and literary men throughout the country, revealing the recognition of the mutes as advancing to a higher plane; as a fellow of the scholars of the earth.

It is fitting that at least one college, out of the hundreds in the land, many of them richly endowed by public appropriation or private charity, should be so conducted that those who gain their knowledge through the eye should enjoy its benefits. It is fitting that this first college of the kind be established in a country like ours. Where a free government gives full liberty to the human intellect to expand and operate, education should be proportionately liberal and ample. It is fitting that it be here at the capital of the country, under the fostering hand of the representatives of all the States—that a college national in its work should have a national location.

In concluding, I wish to be most distinctly understood as disclaiming any desire to magnify the work actually accomplished by this college, the position it has taken, or the high favor with which it has been received by the deaf-mutes, their friends and instructors, and by educated men generally. None can feel the deficiencies in the actual accomplishment more deeply than do we who have seen them from day to day. Our work is but just begun, our plans are only in the process of development, our buildings, apparatus and other appliances, our corps of instructors are not complete, our students are not so fully and uniformly prepared for the course of study as we hope to find succeeding classes, and up to the present time more or less scepticism has existed in the minds of many who have not seen us regarding the practicability of the undertaking.

We would not magnify our work, but we do not hesitate to speak with all confidence and joy of the higher education of the deaf and dumb, of the necessity and practicability of a college for them, and of the promise—to be fulfilled, perhaps, under abler and better men—that is already given here. We present the college, not because it is now, providentially as we believe, under our charge, but because it is a college towards which the aspirations of those for whom you labor may be directed, and where your labors may be supplemented and crowned with more abundant success. We present not our college, but your college, the fruitage of the American system of teaching the deaf and dumb, that to which every educator of this class in America may turn with just exultation, as the standing proof that whatever may be done by other methods of instruction, this system of ours can and does educate men. We may challenge the world to resist this argument, the practicable development of the American system.

Gentlemen, we are engaged in one work. Its peculiarities and difficulties are encountered by you, and if those are entitled to the greatest honor who as pioneers meet and triumph over the difficulties of discovering, possessing, and subduing new fields, than those who enter in and reap where those have sown, then we shall not be perplexed in assigning the meed of praise to those to whom it is due.

We must carry forward this good work intrusted to us, in the spirit of our Master, who could answer the question, "Art thou he that should come, or look we for another?" "Go and shew those things which ye do hear and see. The blind receive their sight, and the lame walk, and the deaf hear, and the poor have the gospel preached to them;" remembering that Christianity is diffusive and equalizing; that we that are strong ought to bear the infirmities of the weak.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

The above paper was not concluded at the hour of adjournment for dinner, and the reading was resumed and closed as the first exercise at the opening of the afternoon session at 3 o'clock.

#### MISCELLANEOUS BUSINESS.

Mr. GILLET, on behalf of the committee to whom was referred the resolution on additional initial signs, reported as follows:

The committee to whom was referred the paper of I. L. Peet, on "Initial Signs," have had the same under consideration, and beg leave to report the following resolution:

*Resolved*, That the conference has listened to the reading of Mr. I. L. Peet's paper on "Initial Signs" with great pleasure and profit, and recommend its careful consideration to all persons who labor for, or are associated with the deaf and dumb, to the end that they may use their earnest endeavors in bringing this language to the greatest possible perfection.

Deeming the principles enunciated in this paper as philosophical and susceptible of extensive application, and appreciating the talent, experience, and labor required in its preparation, the members of the conference hereby tender to Mr. Peet their sincere thanks for this valuable and practical contribution to the literature of our profession.

PHILIP G. GILLETT,  
W. J. PALMER,

*Committee.*

The resolution reported was unanimously adopted.

Mr. TALBOT. I beg leave to offer the following resolution, suggested by the paper just read by Professor Pratt:

*Resolved*, That this conference recommend the establishment of high classes in all the institutions where these do not now exist, at as early a day as practicable.

*Resolved*, That we recommend that the course of study in these high classes be as far as possible in harmony with the course required for admission to the National Deaf-mute College, that those students who desire it may be prepared for the college classes.

THE PRESIDENT. It strikes me that that might be left to the action of the separate institutions throughout the country. Circumstances might require that the establishment of a high class should be postponed, or not acted upon immediately.

Mr. I. L. PEET. The thought has struck me that as there would be considerable expense in the establishment of a high class in an institution where there might not be sufficient numbers to support a teacher of a grade that should be employed in the instruction of high class, we might modify the resolution so as to suggest that it be tried where it can be done satisfactorily. I can suppose there may be two or three in an institution, and yet the principal could not himself find time to prepare them, but could send them here to be prepared for college, as well as to send them after being prepared.

Mr. TURNER. The college, if rightly recommended to other institutions, will have a happy effect in stimulating them to a greater effort at home. If their pupils may be led to look forward to a higher place of usefulness and profit, it may be a means of promoting the very best interests of the individual institutions as well as of their pupils themselves.

In regard to the benefit of a college course for the deaf and dumb, there can be no more doubt than there is of its usefulness to those who can hear and speak. The fact that we advocate the college is no disparagement to other institutions. We should not think it wise for an academy to set up a claim that colleges were not necessary because academies could carry forward students as far as it was desirable for them to go, and that if any of them wished to remain for a five or six years' course they could be taught there as well as in a college. There is a province in every institution beyond which it cannot successfully operate. The primary school must be confined to the first steps in an education; the grammar school must take up the course and then the academy. The college must take students where the academy leaves them and put them through a course of scientific and classical study, and finally the students must pass on to the law school, the theological seminary, or the medical college, and these institutions must lay the head-stone upon the entire educational structure, and thus prepare the young men for future fields of usefulness. Division of labor and division of departments, each doing its own work and each advancing the student step by step until he arrives at the summit, is just as necessary and important in education as it is in art or in the mechanical operations. Nobody can doubt it. While we advocate the college, we do not detract an iota from the institutions now established in the country. Most of them, if not all, have done their allotted work faithfully and well, and they will, I trust, continue to do that work in all future time, and will raise the deaf and dumb

to positions of usefulness and profit in which they may be successful and happy members of society. But there is a work beyond this which our existing schools cannot as successfully accomplish as institutions designed expressly for that scale of perfection, that advanced stage in the process of education needed and aspired to by a portion of deaf-mute young men which the officers of our schools in the different States should feel willing to give up to a college. We do not suppose, however, that this college will absorb all collegiate effort for the deaf and dumb of this country for all time. We are prepared to expect in the future, that not only the United States will have its college, but that New York will have one of its own, and the States of the west will have theirs also for the students of the west. We are prepared to expect great things. We all know that the lamented Professor Cary many years ago advanced the idea that the first college should be located at the national capital, and should come under the protection and patronage of the general government, as the initiatory college of the United States. And if he were alive I think no one would rejoice more than he to see the image he then had of the future institution reflected back as it is here this day realized.

In advocating these resolutions I trust I speak the sentiments of all the members of this conference when I say that it will be a direct and powerful means of stimulating all the students of State institutions to a higher and more vigorous effort, in the hope that the way may be prepared for them to become members of this institution, and that they may here receive an education which will eminently qualify them for positions as teachers in our State institutions and for various other useful and honorable situations in society.

Dr. MILLIGAN. There is another reason why I am in favor of these resolutions, and that is, that although all of our western institutions are not prepared to have high classes, yet we all expect to have them hereafter. The greatest objection in some, if not in all, is the doubt existing in the minds of the directors whether it is advisable or not. An expression of opinion by this conference would do a great deal to remove that doubt and to establish a belief in the desirability of such classes. For that reason I am in favor of these resolutions. I hope they will pass for the sake of the younger institutions at the west.

Mr. PALMER. I would like to have the resolutions so framed as to apply to institutions where it is practicable. It is useless to recommend, and I know it is not practicable to establish, high classes in some of our institutions. We hope at some time to do so, but in fact there is no necessity for it in some institutions at this time.

Mr. STONE. I will say frankly there was a time when I had little faith in such a course of instruction. My great objection was that the standard of education proposed to be taken would be so low that it would amount to little. A name of itself amounts to little. A man is called a professor sometimes who brushes shoes as a business; I remember our sweeper in college bore the title of "professor" of dust and ashes. That was the view I was inclined to take of this enterprise at its inception. We propose to teach in our institution whatever the deaf and dumb desire to learn. But I am convinced that it is much better to advance certain students in the way here proposed. I am convinced, also, that the standard of this college is higher than I had supposed it would be.

Mr. MACINTIRE. I am very much in favor of this resolution. My experience in Indiana leads me to speak with confidence upon the subject. In Indiana, when the education of the deaf and dumb was commenced the condition of common school instruction was, I suppose, about as low as in any State in the Union, except, perhaps, in North Carolina. In the



education of the deaf and dumb the demand for a thorough course of instruction was very small indeed. The records of our institution show for the first decade of its history the average time spent under instruction, of over 200 pupils, to be less than three years and a half. A very different state of things exists to-day in respect to education generally from what was found there 15 or 20 years ago. We have a thorough system of schools in operation all over the State. We have primary schools in the towns, high schools in the cities, and a State university, in all of which tuition is entirely free. We have one of the most magnificent schools funds of any State in the Union, amounting to \$7,000,000, the proceeds of which, with the annual tax assessed for the purpose, enables us to maintain the annual sessions of our schools more than double the length of time formerly done. Our institution has participated in this prosperity, and kept pace with the improvement in the course of instruction. To the pupils we have dismissed of late years double the amount of time and labor has been given, compared with what was asked and bestowed formerly.

When the idea of a college for the deaf and dumb was first suggested it struck me as not practicable in itself; not that there was anything in the nature of our system of instruction to prevent its being carried out; but I feared it would fail from a want of students. I judged there would not be pupils enough in all the United States to support it. In reference to the college I was in about the same state of mind that the friends of the deaf and dumb in Connecticut were, when they founded the institution at Hartford. They supposed from what they saw around them that there were only pupils enough in all North America to support one institution, and therefore they called it the American Asylum.

Mr. PEET. The American Asylum was originally the Connecticut Asylum; but after the general government gave it a donation of land, it was called the American Asylum.

Mr. TURNER. It is true, however, that they thought there were just about pupils enough for one institution, and therefore they objected to the forming of one in New York.

Mr. MACINTIRE. When the idea was first presented to me in a letter of the president of this institution it seemed to me almost chimerical to attempt it. With this feeling my annual report was written, which was published and sent to the other institutions, in which I stated that I doubted the practicability of succeeding in the establishment of such a college. The time when such an institution for the deaf and dumb would be demanded in this country seemed to me then so far in the future that I was unable to see it. Three years have passed away since then. I have considered the matter more carefully. The enterprise presents itself to my mind in a far different light now, and especially since I have come here and been privileged to witness what I have in the last few days. The establishment of a college for the deaf and dumb is an accomplished fact. I therefore say, with Mr. Stone, that all my doubts have disappeared. I have no doubt at all, not only that the deaf and dumb can be taught to the extent that others can, but also that the country will supply students enough to sustain such an institution.

Closely connected with the college is the organization of high classes. I fully concur in the recommendation that such classes should be established in all our State institutions at as early a day as practicable; and that the course of study in them should be shaped, as far as possible, with reference to the requirements for entering the regular classes of the national institution. I suppose this could not be carried out at once in some of the newer institutions; but even these ought, and I have no

doubt will, shape their course with reference to the attainment of so desirable an object. Influenced by the example of some of the older institutions, we made the attempt in our State three years ago. Our success has been beyond our expectations. We have a class of 21 students, who have completed the primary course of study, and who are pursuing the study of the higher branches. Therefore I think that it is eminently proper that such a resolution as this should go out from this conference. It will have a good effect, especially on the newer institutions. It will tend to elevate the standard of deaf-mute education, and will stimulate to greater exertions in this noble work.

Mr. PALMER. Every one who knows anything of the institutions with us knows we cannot establish such institutions as the resolution recommends now. I don't know how the gentleman from Indiana (Mr. MacIntire) got his idea of the state of education in North Carolina, unless he got it from his residence in East Tennessee. I hope he will not judge us from that residence.

The resolutions were then unanimously adopted.

Mr. I. L. PEET. I rise to present a resolution which perhaps is of as great importance as any that could be brought before this conference. I do it with very great pleasure; for since I have come here I have been strengthened in an idea which I had before, that this college was performing a great and good work; that it was, in the present state of deaf-mute education, a national institution. It may not be a necessity in regard to every State in the country. It is possible that in New York, for instance, if we can retain the right men for teachers, if the State is sufficiently liberal, if our property increases so that we can afford it, we may work up our high class into a college, and our lower into high classes, as we can take our pupils at six and keep them till they are 19 or 20; for notwithstanding what has been advanced in regard to one of the eastern States, the State of New York is as liberal as any State in this Union in respect to the education of the deaf and dumb. New York provides for sending us pupils at the age of six and for keeping them till 12, and then allows them to continue eight years more, and in some cases 11.

Mr. JOHNSON. Alabama has never refused me, for the cause of deaf-mute instruction. I take them at five years old, and if I wish I can keep them till they are 50. I have one 37 now. I have several little orphan girls. There is no limit as to age.

Mr. TURNER. When I first went to the American Asylum there came a pupil 50 years of age, who was brought to the school by his youngest son. [Laughter.]

Mr. MACINTIRE. We can receive children at any age we please. There is nothing in the laws of the State to limit it; the age of admission is left entirely to the discretion of the officers of the institution.

Mr. PALMER. In our own constitution there is a provision for the education of the deaf, dumb, and blind in the State without any limitation as regards years or anything. Therefore we will be even with Indiana in that respect.

Mr. MACINTIRE. We have had such a provision ever since 1852. The constitution of our State provides as securely for the education of the deaf and dumb as it does for defraying any other of the expenses of the State government.

Mr. PEET. These remarks only corroborate what I said in regard to the claims which have been made by another State. I do not wish to glorify New York. I have a great respect for her; I think she is a noble State, noble in all her acts and feelings and purposes. And I can claim

for her justly that she has not been outdone by the State for which this claim had been publicly set up. And now, I find that other States also have as liberal a system as can be conceived. We ought therefore to feel great encouragement that these provisions can be sustained and that the education of the deaf and dumb can be carried to the highest limit. I do not know what will be the result in my State and other States as to the amount of education they will succeed in giving wisely and well to the deaf-mutes. But I do think this college is a practical success, and that it is destined to be a great blessing to the deaf and dumb, and that if it will promise not to get from us our best teachers as soon as we have given them a thorough training, I will promise to speak well of it. I did have hard feelings when they succeeded in getting the man whom I had selected for my high-class teacher, and I felt that I would rather the college was not in existence. But still I have the same friendship for him and for the president of the college who induced him to come here that I ever had, and I think I have an increased friendship, for it was ever founded on respect.

Therefore, while I do not commit our institution to any course, I frankly say that I shall sustain this college to the best of my ability, and shall encourage it in every way; and I take great pleasure here in offering to the conference these resolutions:

*Resolved*, That this conference does hereby give its hearty approval to the work of the National Deaf Mute College, regarding it as an institution essential to the completion of the national system of deaf-mute education.

*Resolved*, That an increase, at an early day, of the number of free State students, now authorized by Congress is called for by every consideration of justice and expediency and our senators and representatives are hereby requested to make such amendments in the law of March 2, 1867, as may secure to the deaf and dumb of the United States equal privileges in the college, and the attention of Congress is respectfully directed to the fact that immense portions of the national domain have been appropriated for the endowment of universities and colleges for hearing and speaking youths, in the advantages of which deaf-mutes cannot participate; hence, in the judgment of this conference, it is most fitting and proper that a college for this class of persons—shut out, until recently, from the benefits of collegiate education—should be perfected and maintained on a liberal scale by the national government.

The resolution was unanimously adopted.

Mr. MacIntire, of the committee to whom was referred the papers read by Dr. Peet, on a course of elementary lessons for the deaf and dumb, and the one by Professor Brock, on a better method for beginners, made a report:

That there were valuable suggestions of great practical utility to teachers of this class of persons in those papers, and that the greatest progress will be secured by such a union of the two methods suggested in these papers as shall give the pupils an early and practical use of the English language, and interest and variety to their daily lessons.

The report was unanimously adopted.

Mr. Gallaudet, from the committee to whom was referred the resolution of Mr. Stone, with the several proposed amendments, reported the following resolution, which was regarded as embodying the essential portions of all the amendments, and which the committee recommended to be placed as the first in the series of resolutions:

*Resolved*, That the American system of deaf-mute education, as practiced and developed in the institutions of this country for the last 50 years, commends itself by the best of all tests, that of prolonged, careful, and successful experiment, as in a pre-eminent degree adapted to relieve the peculiar misfortune of deaf-mutes as a class, and restore them to the blessings of society.

MR. GALLAUDET. I would very briefly call attention to the effect of this resolution. It allows us to recognize the claims of all those persons who may receive benefit from instruction in articulation. We speak of them in a class, including all who come under the division of deaf-mutes, and therefore we are entirely safe, when we speak of this class of persons,

that the system has succeeded better than any other system with which we have been acquainted. That for a portion some other system may be better, we do not deny, but we speak of the mass. Then its application is to the relieving of the peculiar misfortune of the deaf and dumb, and we say we believe this is done in a pre-eminent degree.

Mr. Turner moved the adoption of the resolution, and the recommendation of the committee as to the order of the resolutions.

Dr. MILLIGAN. I have the same objection to the resolution which I had to the resolution this morning. There is the word "pre-eminent" still in the resolution.

Mr. PEET. I have the feeling that Dr. Milligan has a perfect right to have an objection. I would prefer that we should be unanimous; but if we are not, I call for the yeas and nays.

The yeas and nays were ordered unanimously, and being taken resulted as follows:

YEAS—W. W. Turner, C. Stone, H. P. Peet, I. L. Peet, G. O. Fay, T. MacIntire, W. D. Kerr, E. M. Kerr, E. M. Gallaudet, W. J. Palmer, Benj. Talbot, W. O. Connor, E. L. Bangs, J. H. Johnson.

NAYS—P. G. Gillett, H. W. Milligan.

The resolution was accordingly adopted.

Mr. Bangs offered the following resolution, saying that he presented it merely to elicit the opinion of the conference:

*Resolved*, That the best interests of institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb will be promoted by intrusting the instruction of classes after the third year to the liberally educated hearing and speaking male teachers.

Mr. MACINTIRE. I do hope that resolution will not be sprung upon us now. It will be more proper to be considered among the different institutions themselves. There is great diversity of opinion among boards of trustees, and it can be settled better by local opinions than by the vote of this conference.

Mr. PEET. One of the strongest arguments in favor of this college is that it raises up a class of educated deaf-mutes; and I wish to say that for no class of men have I a greater respect than for a skilful deaf-mute teacher. They may carry their pupils to the seventh or eighth year, better than some educated men who do not know how to teach can do it. Mr. Tillinghast, who is a graduate, is teaching a high class in our institution, and it is almost impossible to find a man who can teach an advanced class better than he can. While we should try to get as good hearing and speaking teachers as we can, I think we should not limit a principal to the exact position to which he would assign a teacher. I should be very sorry to be limited by any such resolution myself.

Mr. BANGS. My object in offering the resolution is accomplished. It matters not whether it is adopted or put on record. I simply desired to have an expression of opinion.

Mr. STONE. I yield to no one in respect for deaf and dumb teachers; but I am sorry to have any comparison made. I think it is unnecessary. I do not believe a man is a better teacher because he is deaf and dumb. Whether a man is a good teacher of the deaf and dumb or not depends on his peculiar qualifications, and his education. In my judgment, a deaf and dumb teacher is not as good. His disability affects him in this direction.

Mr. PEET. The habit of thought of a deaf and dumb man may fit him better for his work. The hearing man sometimes fails in that particular. The more we can put ourselves in a condition like the deaf-mutes, the more nearly we come in contact with their minds.

Mr. STONE. I agree that some deaf-mutes can teach better than some speaking gentlemen, but I do not believe that their want of power to

speak and hear adds to their ability to teach well. The loss of hearing is a disability. Those who become accomplished as teachers do not do so because they are deaf and dumb, but in spite of it.

Mr. E. M. GALLAUDET. I trust the resolution may not be withdrawn. I regard this little discussion as of importance, and I desire to say one word in reference to the resolution, because it affects our own institution. I should be sorry to have such a resolution adopted by the conference, or by any meeting of instructors of the deaf and dumb, for my practice has been quite in favor of employing the deaf and dumb as instructors, and giving them every position of respect and emolument to which they are entitled. We have one who is generally termed a semi-mute, for whom we have a very high respect; I refer to Mr. Denison. He fills the position of senior instructor in the primary department in our institution. He has carried pupils through a course of seven years with great credit, and has received the degree of master of arts in New York, and of bachelor of philosophy from the Columbian College in this District. I should be sorry to have a resolution adopted which would reflect on a gentleman so well qualified to teach. Mr. Ballard, a congenital deaf-mute, is as well qualified to teach as any one in the profession. He received the benefits of the high class at Hartford; he entered our college at its opening, and went through its scientific course and graduated with the degree of bachelor of science. On his account, therefore, I should regret the passage of this resolution. I think our whole discussion has been in favor of raising to and continuing every deaf-mute in as high a position as he can fill.

Mr. BANGS. I yield to no one in my wishes to elevate the deaf and dumb. I desired to get the views of the conference. My board have wished me to get hearing and speaking teachers, and in all honesty I desired an expression of opinion, for our boards may need enlightenment on this subject. I am willing to withdraw the resolution, having accomplished my object in offering it.

Mr. GALLAUDET. I trust that the gentleman will submit a resolution that teachers of the highest qualifications should be employed for the deaf and dumb. He may put it in such shape as he pleases, in that respect, and I will assist him.

Mr. BANGS. No one has doubted that we desired teachers of the highest qualifications; therefore I do not see any reason for a resolution of that kind. I wish to withdraw the resolution, and let the discussion be informal.

On motion by Mr. Fay the resolution was laid on the table.

The next exercise was the reading of a paper by Mr. Palmer on

#### THE MECHANICAL INSTRUCTION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB.

During the past year a greater interest has been awakened in the cause of deaf-mute instruction in this country than at any previous period. The system of intellectual instruction pursued by the fathers of our profession, those who have devoted their lives to devising the best method of imparting knowledge to this unfortunate class, has been attacked and other plans and systems recommended by those who have had but limited, if any, actual experience in the education of the deaf and dumb.

In the controversy which has been recently carried on, only the subjects of intellectual education and improvement of the deaf and dumb have been considered, and one might be led to suppose that our chief object was to make accomplished scholars, without sufficient regard to the future welfare of those intrusted to our charge. When we consider the

fact that a very large proportion of the pupils admitted into our institutions are poor and have no means of obtaining a livelihood after completing their education, should we not give more attention to the consideration of the question, how they shall be taught to use practically in after life the knowledge they have acquired during their connection with an institution?

While we think that this subject has not received that attention to which it was entitled, yet it has not altogether been neglected. It has received some attention in the annual reports of most of our institutions. The venerable ex-principal of the New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, in his last report previous to his resignation of that important position which he had so ably filled for many years, in alluding to a report of the examination of the high class, says:

We cannot read the report of the great advances in all the branches of a good education, including in some cases ancient and modern languages, made by the members of this class, without a painful degree of solicitude for their future. The range of remunerative occupations for which education is required, open to a deaf-mute, is restricted, and those situations for which they are best qualified are beset with a crowd of hearing and speaking competitors.

After alluding to the fact that some of his former pupils had obtained clerkships in the public service, and the difficulty they generally have of obtaining positions for which they are qualified, on account of their inability to hear and speak, he says further:

I look forward to the time so long hoped for when we shall have the means of adding to our very restricted choice of trades, those more attractive to deaf-mutes of superior talents and mental cultivation, such as printing, drawing and wood engraving, all of which we have tried in former years with encouraging results, though on a small scale.

An examination of the practical working of most institutions for the deaf and dumb in the United States gives evidence that the attention has not been paid to their industrial training which its importance to their future welfare demands. The difference between the amount appropriated for their intellectual and mechanical training shows clearly the importance attached to each respectively, and proves the necessity of some change in our present system. We should not, as heretofore, so greatly undervalue the mechanical instruction of the deaf and dumb in comparison with the care bestowed on their intellectual culture and advancement.

Fully admitting the prime importance of a good solid English education to every deaf-mute capable of acquiring it, we can see no just reason why their practical training should not be fostered and encouraged in a degree commensurate with its importance in enabling them, instead of being a burden to their families and friends, to become self-reliant and valuable citizens.

Mr. Jacobs, principal of the Kentucky Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, who has spent almost a half century in the instruction of deaf-mutes, in a recent report, says: "Intellectual education, whether of deaf-mutes or of speaking persons, unless accompanied with industrial training and qualification to obtain a livelihood, is not a benefaction." If this be true—and we think the assertion cannot be successfully contradicted—do not we assume a great responsibility if we develop the intellectual faculties of those committed to our charge, thus emancipating them from mental darkness, and neglect to make the education we have imparted a source of lasting good?

As before remarked, a very large proportion of the pupils in our institutions are from the humbler walks of life, and are supported by the State during the period of their education. After their education is completed, their only reliance for self-support and independence will be the trades or occupations taught them while at school. They cannot

enter any of the learned professions, and in only a few instances do they develop and cultivate sufficient talent for the fine arts to enable them to engage in painting, drawing, engraving or kindred pursuits as a means of support. There are many, also, whose capacity for acquiring an education is extremely limited, but who evince considerable mechanical talent. With these it is very important that they should be instructed in some useful handicraft which will prepare them for the struggle of life. Indeed, we think that in such cases it is eminently wise and proper that the larger portion of their time should be devoted to receiving mechanical instruction. In fact, the importance to every pupil of obtaining a knowledge of some good trade cannot be overestimated.

Competent instructors should be secured, and a certain portion of time allotted each day to mechanical instruction. If this is neglected during the period of their education, it has been found that very few persons are willing to undertake their instruction in mechanical or other pursuits, owing to the difficulty of communicating with them. It may be said that the time which could be devoted to their mechanical instruction during the period of their connection with an institution is too limited to enable them to learn any trade; but experience has shown that those who, after their education is completed, apply themselves diligently to the trade they have learned, always earn a competent livelihood.

We are satisfied, from our own as well as from the experience of others, that if the deaf and dumb are properly instructed in mechanical pursuits, as large a proportion will succeed in after life as among the same number of speaking persons, taken promiscuously from the population.

The question is sometimes asked, can deaf-mutes acquire a trade as easily as speaking persons? The following extract from an article in relation to the deaf and dumb, recently published in the "English Cyclopaedia," fully answers this question:

"One institution for the deaf and dumb made the following inquiries in relation to former pupils:

"1. In what occupation has A. B. been engaged since he left school?

"2. Is it found that he has acquired that business with the same facility, or nearly so, as those who hear and speak?

"In response it was found that 174 boys had been put to the following trades: 22 shoemakers, boot-closers, cordwainers; 28 laborers or farm servants; 16 tailors; 12 employed in mills, factories, and clothing trades; 10 cutlery and Sheffield's; 9 joiners, cabinet-makers, carvers, turners, French polishers; 8 letter-press printers or compositors; 8 engravers or wood-engravers; 7 engineers, mechanics, moulders, pattern-makers; 5 farmers; 4 lithographers or lithographic printers; 4 pattern-designers; 4 quarrymen; 3 book-binders; 3 gardeners; 2 clerks; 2 painters and decorators; 2 bakers; 2 artists; 2 nail-makers; 11 at sundry occupations, viz: 1 assistant at institution; 1 stenciller; 1 hawker; 1 brick-maker; 1 modeller; 1 type-founder; 1 collier; 1 miller; 1 watch-maker; 1 porter; 1 hair-dresser.

"The next important object was to ascertain the facility with which the pupils who had been put to trades acquired them, in comparison with young people not deaf and dumb. Of 132 boys it is found that 80 acquired their business as well as others, 28 nearly as well as others, 9 more readily than those not deaf and dumb, and 10 not so well as those who hear and speak; 5 cases are doubtful.

"A conclusion very favorable to the pupils may therefore be formed; they are, to say the least, equal to young people endowed with all their faculties. \* \* \* And it must be borne in mind that in nearly all

cases these children were under the disadvantages (referred to by their employers) of associating with parties not accustomed to the deaf and dumb, who found it difficult to explain their precise meaning, or give directions with any accuracy. On the other hand, several of the employers are so thoroughly satisfied that they express their willingness to take other pupils from the institution. Enough has been ascertained with regard to the facility of the pupils in acquiring trades, to force this conclusion upon the public mind, namely: '*That the deaf and dumb as a body acquire trades quite as well as those who hear and speak.*'"

The importance of mechanical instruction being acknowledged, the question then arises, what trades are best suited to the deaf and dumb? The following list will show the estimation in which the trades are held in the several institutions in the United States. The trades are taught as follows:

*American Asylum for Deaf and Dumb.*—Cabinet-making, shoe-making, and tailoring.

*New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.*—Cabinet-making, shoe-making, and tailoring.

*Pennsylvania Institution for Deaf and Dumb.*—Shoe-making and tailoring.

*Wisconsin Institution for Deaf and Dumb.*—Shoe-making and cabinet-making.

*Indiana Institution for Deaf and Dumb.*—Cabinet-making, shoe-making, and tailoring.

*Illinois Institution for Deaf and Dumb.*—Cabinet-making and shoe-making.

*Louisiana Institution for Deaf and Dumb and the Blind.*—Printing and photography.

*Alabama Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind.*—Shoe-making.

*California Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind.*—Shoe-making.

*Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.*—Cabinet-making.

*Virginia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind.*—Printing, book-binding, and tailoring.

*Kentucky Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.*—Gardening.

*Ohio Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.*—Printing, book-binding, and shoe-making.

*North Carolina Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.*—Printing, book-binding, and shoe-making.

*Georgia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.*—Shoe-making.

In Iowa, Michigan, Tennessee, Minnesota, and Missouri, no trades are taught at this time.

From this it will be seen that 11 institutions teach shoe-making; 6 cabinet-making, 5 tailoring, 4 printing, 3 binding, and one each photography and gardening, neither of which can be considered as a trade.

In our opinion shoe-making, cabinet-making, and tailoring are the trades best suited to the deaf and dumb. They can be pursued in almost any locality with success and profit.

A printing office and book-binding are useful adjuncts to an institution, and the trades of printing and book-binding are well suited to such deaf-mutes as live in localities where they can be prosecuted successfully.

We think that, as far as possible, facilities should be afforded to vary the number of trades taught in an institution, so that the pupils may be assigned to the trade for which he has an aptitude or inclination.



If this is done, and the acquisition is made pleasant, he will engage in it with interest, and will be apt to succeed in its acquisition.

One great error has existed in the management of the mechanical departments of our institutions. It has been generally expected that they should be a source of profit, or at least be self-sustaining; and in the anxiety to make them profitable in a pecuniary point of view the permanent benefit of the pupil has been too often overlooked. This error should be corrected, and such care and attention should be given to the mechanical instruction of our deaf-mute pupils, as will enable them, when their education is completed, to enter the "world's broad field of battle," and contend successfully with those who are blessed with the possession of the faculties of hearing and speech.

In our own institution we have been much encouraged by the success of some of our pupils, who learned a trade during the period of their education. Instead of being in part a burden to their friends, and eking out a bare subsistence by the cultivation of the soil, they are now earning a competent livelihood, and have become valuable and useful citizens. And although the success of those who have acquired trades has not been so great as we could have wished, yet the fact that some have succeeded under our present imperfect system of mechanical training, and under the many great disadvantages they have had to contend against in entering upon the busy stage of life, is a strong argument in favor of increasing the efficiency of our mechanical departments.

The importance of the subject discussed must be acknowledged by all; and if the writer has succeeded in awakening a more lively interest in the present and future welfare of the deaf and dumb of our country, he will feel that his labor has not been in vain.

Mr. PEET. I would like to offer a resolution to this effect:

*Resolved*, That the principles laid down in the paper of Mr. Palmer have the hearty concurrence of the members of this conference, and that we urge on all directors of institutions that they foster, to the extent of their ability, the mechanical departments in each institution.

I think this is a subject of great importance, that the deaf-mute, while in the institution, acquiring a knowledge of language and of those facts which will benefit him through life, should acquire habits of industry, and prepare himself to be a useful member of the community. No man who eats the bread of idleness is to be treated with respect, and any man who contributes to the well being of society is to be respected. We should impress upon our pupils an idea of the dignity of labor, and combined with that idea should be the virtues of frugality, honesty, and an effort to provide for the wants of those nearest to them, and to do something for benevolent purposes. I think we should associate with this idea of learning a trade the idea that it is a great blessing, a great privilege to do it. I would offer every encouragement to the pupils to make every effort to perfect themselves in this department of education in our several institutions. The gentleman said horticulture was not a trade, but I think some of its principles should be taught. I asked our gardener to procure seedling apple trees, so that the pupils might be taught to bud them. I would encourage them in every way, so that they may procure a farm if possible, and labor on it and support themselves. I do not believe there is any one employment in which a deaf-mute can finally settle and be happier, and in which his disability will trouble him less, than in farming. Two members of our high class went to farming after going through the course. One had studied chemistry, and made an admirable farmer. Another is really a very able nurseryman.

Mr. Palmer stated that he intended to bring in remarks in favor of other industrial pursuits; but the limited time he had been able to give

to the preparation of his paper prevented. He would favor the idea of giving instruction in the direction indicated by Professor Peet.

Mr. Peet further suggested reasons for encouraging deaf-mutes to qualify themselves for horticultural or agricultural pursuits. He thought them appropriate and respectable pursuits, and that the more the deaf and dumb are educated in regard to nature and to all the beautiful suggestions that nature gives to the mind, the more enjoyment they will have in living in the country. They will be happier in the country.

Mr. Fay inquired if it was considered advisable to have the practice of trades extend through the course, including the high class.

Mr. Peet wished the principal of the Hartford institution would answer that question, partly for his own instruction; for, practically, there was no principle established on the subject. Our pupils, as members of the high class, said he, do not work at a trade; but the reason why they do not, is that they are obliged to give place to others who wish to learn a trade also. We have not accommodations for all. What our course would be when we had full accommodations, I am not prepared to say.

Mr. MACINTIRE. We consider it important that pupils continue the practice of trades, the same in this as in the primary department, that they may prepare themselves for self-support, after leaving the institution, either in intellectual pursuits or by labor. But few can expect to get situations as teachers, and therefore it is wrong to encourage them to expect that when they get through a high class or a college they will be sure to be employed as teachers. We have all the male pupils of the high class working their regular hours at their chosen trades.

Mr. STONE. When I first went to Hartford our high class worked in the shop. About that time a strong pressure was brought to bear upon them that they should be as free as the pupils in New York. There were other reasons for the change. They had worked six or seven years, and it was thought they might fairly be free. We needed the room also. For the last three years of the course they do not work in the shop.

Mr. GALLAUDET. It has been suggested to me that some statement in regard to the particular trades which were seen by me to be in use in Europe might be interesting. I will not, however, occupy time in speaking of them, as they have been fully reported upon by yourself, Mr. President, and by other gentlemen. But I would like to call attention to one branch of instruction which I found, which may properly be regarded as of great importance in this connection. I found in Italy an unusual degree of attention paid to instruction in art—in painting, drawing, and in the plastic arts. In the Royal Institution of Milan wood engraving is taught, modelling and sculpture by another teacher, painting by another, and drawing by still another. There are regularly prepared studios for each, beautifully fitted up, and supplied with all the needful appliances of labor in this direction, and there seemed to be a great degree of success. I found in Paris wood carving, and there, also, modelling and painting. In several other institutions which I visited I found more or less attention paid to this subject; and I think it might be made a very important means of education, and might open many new avenues of employment. I therefore desire to commend it to the favorable consideration of the gentlemen who have charge of institutions.

Mr. GILLETT. I will say nothing in regard to the importance of this subject, but will mention a change made in the time-table in our institution, to contribute to what was thought would be to the advantage of this department, without affecting the facilities for the exercises of the school. We have practiced it a year and a half with satisfactory results both to the intellectual and industrial departments, and after such a trial

I can recommend it to any institution having an industrial department as an improvement on the old plan of dividing up the day. The arrangement of this time-table was such that the exercises of the school were in the early part of the day, and those of the industrial department were in the afternoon. We found by this arrangement that the dulness or dilatoriness likely to occur in the latter part of a warm day was avoided, and that time was saved, which before was spent in exchanging apparel for work, and then again for the school-room and in passing from one employment to another.

The PRESIDENT. Will Mr. Gillett state at what hour the school began, and how long were the school exercises?

Mr. GILLETT. The school exercises began at 8.30 a. m. and continued until 1 p. m., there being one recess for older classes and two for primary classes. The hours of work were from 2 to 5 p. m. This time-table is printed in the tenth report of the Illinois institution.

Mr. PALMER. Do you pursue that plan now?

Mr. GILLETT. No; because I cannot, having been overruled by the *superior wisdom of our board of directors*. We now have two seasons of school and two seasons of labor each day.

Mr. MACINTIRE. We have taught trades from the first, and our trades have a little more than paid all expenses, except for the buildings.

Mr. GILLETT. Ours do that.

Mr. MACINTIRE. We find no difficulty in selling all the shoes we can make, and all the furniture. In the tailoring department we make all the clothing used by the pupils, for the boys and girls, and do some work for outside people, for which we get fair prices. The tailor shop is the most profitable. We have introduced sewing machines, as we wish to accustom all our female pupils to their use. In reference to having the work all at one time we have been trying the experiment. We found it is a great drawback to divide up the time into short periods. For the last three months we have but one period for work, and my impression is that experiment is decidedly favorable, not only as to the trades but upon the school. All must be in the chapel at 8 o'clock. Then we have study and recitations, with two brief recesses, till 1 o'clock; then the school is dismissed. We have dinner at a quarter past one, and the pupils go to the shops at fifteen minutes after two; then they work till the first bell rings for tea. After tea they have their chief time for recreation. I must say that I am decidedly pleased with the three months' trial we have made. The pupils seem to accomplish more in school, as is the testimony of our senior and junior teachers, because they have their undivided and continued attention.

Mr. STONE. Is that your arrangement for the winter?

Mr. MACINTIRE. We have not tried it in the winter. Their chief amusement in the winter is skating. We have a pond on our premises—a place that we can flood with water.

The PRESIDENT. What recreation do they have when they cannot skate?

Mr. MACINTIRE. We pay considerable attention to amusements. We have a small gymnasium; we have also croquet in-door and out-door, and we give the afternoon of Saturdays.

Mr. STONE. We give all Saturday, though the boys work till 11 o'clock; then they brush up and go to the city.

Mr. MACINTIRE. We give some instruction on Saturday morning.

Dr. GALLAUDET, of New York. I trust this matter of the employment of the deaf and dumb will be taken away as something to be thought of seriously. I am situated so that I would be glad to know the best way

in which to manage their amusements. We have 350 adult mutes, and we find it difficult to get employment for them. Those who have a good knowledge of trades can get employment. I trust the principals will take hold of this subject and perfect what they have, and if there are no mechanical advantages enjoyed they should have them. Deaf-mutes who have no means of employment are in a miserable condition. The dry-goods merchants look to me for some to whom they give situations, and they succeed very well in packing. There are some other avenues which are open to them. I think the great majority who are in New York are thrifty and are doing well. But we all know there are some who are floating about the country without employment. I trust we may all use our influence to eradicate this practice, and may frown upon the attempt of any to go around the country selling little things, and appealing to the charity of the people. They need regular employment; and when they have that there is no reason why they should not be useful and respected citizens, particularly when they add to this the great influence of Christian character.

Mr. Kerr, in this connection, spoke of the common practice in his State of persons who are deaf and dumb resorting to travelling through the community and getting a living by improper and, in many instances, deceptive and fraudulent practices; and specified some cases in which he had been imposed upon himself. In Missouri they had had a class of people who were not in favor of learning trades for a living. But now, in connection with the institution under his care, they have a work-shop. Some of the pupils go to the city and learn the printing business, shoemaking and other trades.

Mr. STONE. We are about erecting a large two-story building for a gymnasium, furnishing below a bowling alley, and other means of amusement for boys of different ages.

The resolution offered by Mr. Peet was then unanimously adopted, and the conference then adjourned to 8 o'clock in the evening.

#### FRIDAY EVENING.

The conference met at the appointed time.

The 11th paper, by Miss Cornelia Trask, of the Illinois institution, was read by Mr. Gillett, entitled

#### WOMEN AS TEACHERS OF MUTES.

The overthrow of slavery has been closely followed by arguments, debates, and discussions on the rights of woman, and by the question of questions, What is justice to woman? While so much is being said about these rights, while "woman and her work" is occupying so large a share in the public affairs of the nation, perhaps it will not seem amiss in me to ask how fast or how slowly the sentiment of justice to ladies as teachers of mutes is advancing among the superintendents, professors, and trustees of our deaf and dumb institutions.

Within a few years ladies have been admitted into some of the institutions as teachers, but their addition to the corps of instructors has provoked considerable discussion, some favoring, others bitterly opposing, always giving honor to the man against the woman, even before her trial, thereby committing an unpardonable injustice against the boasted equality of American institutions. So in the eastern States, not many years ago, when the employment of ladies as teachers in the winter schools was first recommended to school committees, not a little was said against adopting the experiment. The committee were magnanimous enough to allow

ladies to teach the summer schools, but when the time for opening the winter school rolled round, no matter how efficient the lady had been as teacher, or how well she had done her work, or how well qualified she was to carry it on, she must step one side and give place to a man. The committee and the parents in the districts where such schools were located were afraid to give them to the care and management of a lady, because the large, turbulent boys, who were no longer needed at home or on the farm, attended school; it being the larger and older boys who always instigated and executed a successful rebellion, defied the authority of the teacher, and drove him from the door of the school-house in mortification and dishonor, instead of according him respect and affection, thus endangering the quiet and harmony of the school. The power of a sterner voice and of a firmer hand were thought necessary to overawe this insurrectionary spirit. Sometimes, from false notions of pride and honor, boys will be spurred on to disobedience and open rebellion against the authority of a master, whose physical prowess is the basis of his discipline, while their *generous* sentiments would be touched with a feeling of chivalry towards a lady, whose request they will, therefore, respect though they spurn the command of a master. Woman's influence is of a moral character, which flourishes amid peace and union, consisting more in the persuasion that wins than in the power which overrules. One committee after another was induced to try the experiment of employing ladies in these schools; at first the practice was highly commended by some and strongly discountenanced by others; but their success has been so great that the voice of opposition is now silenced. The apprehension that women will have too little strength to govern, that they will be harassed by disobedience and driven away by insurrection, has been dissipated.

The proportion of schools kept by the ladies which have been broken up by the insubordination of the scholars or discontinued because of the incompetency of the teachers is far less than of the schools kept by men; instances are numerous where ladies have succeeded in maintaining order and good government in schools which, under male teachers, have been broken up by insubordination. It has been demonstrated by experience that children can be better and more genially taught by a lady; that she will keep quite as good a school as a man, and will transfuse into the minds of the pupils purer elements, both of conduct and character, which will extend their refining and humanizing influences far outward into society and far onward into futurity.

We hear no more of "breaking up of schools;" when we did, men were more often the teachers than ladies, thus proving that the sterner voice and firmer hand were *not* necessary to overawe an insurrectionary spirit. Improvement in the administration of a system is often a surer mark of progress than improvement in the system.

The great change that has taken place within the last 28 years, both in public sentiment and practice, in regard to the employment of women as teachers, is very gratifying to observe, and is a proof that the most valuable institutions are not so much a creation as a growth; they are the result of necessity, and burst forth from the public mind by an internal pressure, like an opening bud. The number of male teachers employed in the common district schools has been gradually decreasing, while the number of ladies has been more rapidly increasing. That ladies are incomparably better teachers for young children than males cannot admit of doubt. Their manners are more mild and gentle, hence better suited to the tenderness of childhood. They are endowed by nature with stronger parental impulses, and this makes their society to children more congenial and turns duty into pleasure.

Their minds are less withdrawn from their employment by the active scenes of life, and they are less intent upon scheming for future honors or emoluments.

As a class, ladies do not look forward to the time when they shall break away from the domestic circle and go abroad into the world to make a fortune for themselves; hence the sphere of hope and effort is narrower, and the whole forces of the mind are more readily concentrated upon present duties; they are also of purer morals, on which account they are more fit to be the exemplars and guides of young children than males.

The most just, sound, and philosophical minds of this country are no longer debating, but have already decided, that woman excels man in instructing and expanding the minds of young children, and that they exert a more genial, kindly, and humanizing influence upon their dispositions and manners.

At the late industrial exhibition in Paris a model school-house, with all the necessary school apparatus, was exhibited. It was examined by the European people with a kind of wonder. It suggested new thoughts, new ideas to them. They could not but perceive the part the American educational system fills in promoting the national welfare.

Monsieur Ferte, late chief of primary instruction in Paris, says:

The free school in America is truly the common centre, whence have sprung the greater number of men who have shed lustre upon the nation and developed in such prodigious manner the power of the United States.

Although he approves the method adopted in the American system of education, he can scarcely approve our custom of educating the sexes together. He is surprised at the great number of ladies employed as teachers; he says, the extent to which they are employed among us is something new to Frenchmen. It is a singularity of which France offers no example, that many of the schools where boys are in the majority are taught by ladies, and in most instances boys and girls pursue the same course of studies under the direction of the same instructors—a system which is combated in France by usage and certain moral and pedagogical considerations, all of which have their weight. Yet he concedes that it is evidently to this system of teaching in common that the United States are indebted for the present generation of women of manly intellect, ready to enter upon the same course of studies as men, and that in the law, in medicine, and in other professions, the weaker sex often display great knowledge and talent which would do honor to the sterner sex. Our example has not been lost upon our neighbors across the waters. Already the work of reform has commenced; girls are being taken from priestly influence and steps are being taken to educate them, so that even there woman may take her proper place.

If ladies succeed so well as teachers and are so essential to our public schools, if they do so much better than males in instructing normal children, why should they not succeed and be employed in our deaf and dumb institutions? Some of the superintendents and directors were induced, by very good reasons, I think, to make the experiment.

Their most sanguine expectations must have been fully realized, or ladies would not have been retained as teachers in the institutions so long.

Those who were first employed have not only been retained in certain instances, but their number gradually increased. The instruction of deaf and dumb by ladies is thought to be impracticable by members of the profession. What do these think of the late act of the Massachusetts legislature, which intrusted the new institution in that State to the care

and management of a lady? Are these aware that the institution in California was established and carried on for years by a lady?

To me it seems necessary that ladies should be employed as teachers. In our institution the number of girls is equal to the number of boys; delicacy should not permit them to be left hours together without any person to consult belonging to their own sex. They need constantly the presence and oversight of competent, cultivated, and refined persons, to look after their safety, welfare, and general good behavior when out of school. That such persons should be ladies is too evident to require argument.

It is also justice to the girls, and not only justice but quite important and beneficial to them, to have among the teachers some of their own sex, whose conversation and example will train them to a proper tone of womanly feeling and to propriety of deportment. In this as well as in other institutions the boys have always had the constant oversight and attention of one of the male teachers, to afford them any instruction or assistance that they may need in their studies, to give them instruction in the amenities of social life, as well as to see that they apply their time to the faithful performance of their appropriate and assigned duties. Certainly it is but justice to extend the same advantage to the girls. They are always classified with the boys, are expected to prepare their lessons equally well, and be as prompt and ready in their recitations; but how can they if they have not the same advantage, the same help?

The matrons have their respective duties to perform; they have their sphere as well as the principal and steward and instructors. Their duties are more of a maternal and domestic nature, and do not necessarily take them into the intellectual department; but if there are no lady teachers, they are compelled to have the same oversight of the girls that the male teachers have of the boys, and be as ready to assist them; their duties are of such a varied nature that they are liable to be called away any time, and perhaps many times during the hours for study, when the girls are left to themselves, to prepare their lessons or not as they please. Their duties are so numerous, and they have such a multiplicity of cares, that they cannot be expected to take the same interest, nor, as a general thing, to be as well qualified to assist the girls in preparing their lessons, nor feel the importance of having them well prepared as a teacher.

Perhaps at the very time the girls may need the most assistance the matron is necessarily absent from the room; they cannot receive the aid they need, consequently go to their classes with lessons imperfectly prepared. The matrons may or may not be qualified to take the place of a teacher; even if they are, they may not reasonably be expected to perform the duties of a teacher, any more than a teacher is expected to perform the duties of the matron. It is acknowledged that the most difficult situation in an institution, to fill satisfactorily, is that of matron. It is difficult to find a person, competent in every respect, willing to take upon herself the responsibilities of a situation that has so much care and so many perplexities. The most common objection made to ladies as teachers of mutes, is, that "they are not physically adapted," "could not endure the wear and tear of this peculiarly exhausting profession," "that their health is too changeable." Those making this objection greatly underrate the physical strength of woman. If they were to make careful inquiries about the relative endurance of men and women engaged in sedentary and in-door pursuits, they would find that the inferiority was not on our side. That woman is *not* a perpetual invalid is well proved by the amount of steady and uninterrupted labor that women

perform all over the world. Dexterity supplies the place of strength, and the lightness and flexibility of their muscles give them an advantage over man in everything but brute force. I know not how it is in other institutions, but in this, the ladies who are employed as teachers seem to endure the "wear and tear of the school-room duties" fully as well as the gentlemen. Sometimes I am inclined to think that Providence has come to our rescue and given us good health, to refute this objection urged against us. While I have been connected with the Illinois institution, the ladies who have been employed as teachers have had better health, and there have been fewer interruptions in the performance of their duties by sickness than among the male teachers. Of the gentlemen who have been teaching here during the last nine years I can recall but one who has not lost time from school on account of sickness; he lost three weeks on two separate occasions, when attending to business, though professional, yet not connected with this institution. Three-fourths of the male teachers on an average have lost more than a week a year—some one week at a time, some two, and others more, and in certain instances these one or two weeks have not been the only interruptions during the term, but have been repeated. In regard to the ladies who have been teaching during that time, one who was engaged in teaching four years did not lose one day from the school-room while connected with the institution. Another, who taught three years, did not lose a half day; two others, who have taught, the one eight years, the other nine, have not lost, in the aggregate number of days and half-days, more than a week each in *all* that time. Another, who has nearly completed her second year, has not lost a moment's time from school. The ladies on an average have lost one day a year. These facts are not set forth to prove that gentlemen are disqualified to teach in an institution, but to show that the objection which has been made to ladies on account of the variableness of their health is no more true of ladies than it is of gentlemen; yet it is never urged against them. When is this made an objection to employing ladies in our common schools? They endure the exhausting labors and confinement of our speaking schools, are quite as regular in their attendance at school as men, nothing detaining them but the most serious sickness. What holds true in respect to the ladies in our public schools will hold true of ladies employed in our deaf and dumb institutions.

Another objection made to ladies is "want of permanency." Years ago, when deaf-mute instruction was in its infancy, the noble men who engaged in the work were men deeply interested in it, men of great philanthropic hearts, who engaged in it heart and soul, determined to make it a success; by their energy and counsels they *have* set it forth successfully on its course of usefulness. They entered this profession, with the *view* of making it their life work, and most of them have done so, growing gray in the service. It was something new, in which they could see a large field of usefulness opening before them, and they were willing to spend and be spent in the service; they served their day and generation well, and great well be their reward. Some of the early instructors have already passed away, to reap their reward for good done here. Others are still with us, but soon, alas! their places will know them no more.

Now the young men of the best talent and education, men of energy, who would make good teachers and be an honor to the profession, look higher. If they do engage in the work, in many instances it is only for a time, intending to make this a stepping-stone to something higher and better.



Ambitious young men want a larger circle of action, a wider range of business; they are eager to amass a fortune. In every other vocation in which young men can engage there is a better chance for doing this, and for rising in the world than there is in our institutions. This profession should be rewarded and honored in proportion to the magnitude and preciousness of the interests committed to its care; its title to influence and authority, founded upon the good it accomplishes, should be everywhere acknowledged. The salaries paid in most of the institutions furnish little inducement to talented young men to enter the profession; avenues to greater honor and emolument are constantly opening to allure its members into more brilliant and more lucrative walks of life. Until they are paid better salaries, thus making it an object for them to engage in the work permanently, they cannot be expected to continue in it, and constant changes will be inevitable.

Almost every young man looks forward to the time when he can make a home for himself, but the salaries paid them in most of the institutions do not make the prospect of gratifying that wish very bright; consequently, as soon as they have an opportunity to better their condition, how quickly do they embrace it. They do not take into consideration "the time and labor that has been expended to make them efficient and useful teachers," any more than the ladies do when they contemplate matrimonial relations. Most of these *who do* continue in the work are looking forward to the time when they shall be called to fill some vacant principalship, and no doubt are constantly wishing that the wheel of fortune would turn in their favor, that they might have an opportunity to show the world what they can do. In our eastern institutions how often do we hear this complaint made; "several of our most experienced professors have left us, to take higher positions in other institutions." These are not lost to the profession, it is true, still they decrease the ratio of permanent teachers. Ladies have never aspired to that position, and their ranks have never been thinned for that reason. Where does the permanency exist but among the mute male teachers? They alone enter the profession, and engage in the work, intending to make it their life work, they can make it easier for themselves than almost any other occupation they can engage in, and they are content to plod on in the same old way year after year, because they are deprived by the loss of one of their senses of the opportunity of entering upon many of the occupations of active business men. It is not so with speaking men; they aspire to higher places and more lucrative pursuits. In case there were large numbers of young men engaged in the profession, the limited number of institutions precludes the idea of their all rising to be superintendents, consequently many must become disheartened, and ambition leads them into other channels. Since ladies have been employed as teachers in this institution changes have not been any more frequent among them than among the other sex. Matrimony, which has been considered the fruitful source of this evil, has not taken away many who have engaged in this work. Only one of the number employed here has been married; of those engaged in other institutions, I know of only one. A deaf and dumb institution to a lady teacher is an effectual insurance company against matrimony. There is no reason why this should be made an objection against ladies any longer.

Another objection that has been made to ladies as teachers of mutes is that "they are not qualified." The intellectual power of women as adapted for the work of instruction has been as greatly underrated as their physical strength. There is nothing that children can learn that a woman is incapable of teaching when properly trained, and in many cases

women make better instructors, as we have seen, than those of the other sex, having more quickness of perception in seizing the difficulties by which the mind of a child is embarrassed, and more mildness of manner; which qualities, combined with the proper degree of firmness that may be acquired, eminently fit her for the work of instruction. Are the men any better qualified at first to do their work than the ladies? Do they understand the sign language, or the peculiar mode of instructing the unfortunate children put under their care any better than ladies? Both alike enter upon their duties without any considerable previous instruction. Ladies learn signs as readily as the gentlemen; if they are well educated, understand the principles of teaching and have an aptitude to teach, there is no reason why they should not be as well qualified to teach in a deaf and dumb institution and be as successful as in the seminaries and schools of every kind throughout the land. Among the best schools in the country are some which have been started and conducted by ladies well qualified for their work, having sent out some of the very best scholars and teachers.

Are mutes so different from speaking children that the same teacher would not do for both? It has been said, "well educated deaf-mute ladies make better teachers than ladies who can hear and speak." I admit that they might accomplish more the first year than the speaking lady—they have the command of the language of natural signs; they have *at first* an adequate means of free communication with their pupils, and know how to begin their work of expanding their opening faculties. Whereas the speaking lady has all these to acquire; she has to learn how to get hold of their peculiarities of mind by experience, which, though a dear teacher, is generally a good one, fitting her better for the work of the second and succeeding years. The power of speech is no disadvantage to her. It is the proper use of the English language which these children have to acquire before they can write it correctly, read books intelligently, or advance with their studies. Certainly no man or woman who is deprived of one of the most important of the senses can be as efficient, other things being equal, as one whose senses are complete. The same objection could be made against speaking men and in favor of a mute gentleman, which I am happy to say is never done. In the Kentucky Institution a speaking lady has taught the most advanced class, and was considered one of the best teachers the institution ever had. I suppose the comparison was made between her and speaking men and mutes of both sexes. In the New York Institution ladies have taught both divisions of the graduating class because they were found to be "better qualified in respect to education and aptitude to teach" than any male teacher in the institution, except the teacher of the high class. By the last report of that institution I learn that a lady has been teaching even this class. If ladies are found to be qualified to teach the advanced classes in two of the institutions they are certainly competent "to take classes through the studies of the third year" in the others, which has been denied by some.

It is claimed that ladies are disqualified to teach because they lack a classical education, which is said to be indispensable. Is it ever considered indispensable to the qualification of a lady who teaches in the common schools? If it is so necessary, why is it not required of the mute teachers who are employed? If ladies, who have spent more time on their education than most mutes, are not qualified to teach because they have not mastered the classics, certainly the mutes are disqualified; yet no one is so unjust as to urge this against them.

It has been urged that "ladies are not available for exhibitions." To

which it may be replied, this should not disqualify them to teach. It should be the scholars who are brought forward in exhibitions, *not* the teacher. The object of exhibitions *is or should be* to show the attainment of the pupils, *not* the teacher. It has also been urged against the employment of ladies as teachers of deaf and dumb, "that they are unable to manage grown boys, and secure their prompt obedience," an objection which, as has been shown in the former part of this article, is wisely no longer urged against her as teacher in common schools, where there are boys quite as large and as old as any in our institutions. Even if this presumed inability were true, it necessarily falls to the ground in an institution for deaf and dumb, where the superintendent is the executive officer, and is reasonably presumed to have control, and to be always ready to administer discipline. In our institution certain kinds of punishment by mute teachers, without regard to sex, has been prohibited by the trustees. If *they* are thus free from the unpleasant exercise of discipline, why should not the ladies enjoy the same immunities?

All the institutions in our country are in as flourishing condition at the present time as they were before ladies were employed as teachers; and no one of them will admit that its grade of scholarship has deteriorated. That we degrade the profession is only an open and very ungallant charge of mental inferiority. The profession is exalted or degraded by the unfaithfulness or fidelity with which the duties are performed by the moral character of those engaged in it, *not* by the *sex*. It is a doctrine of those who claim that the employment of ladies is a degradation to the profession; that all vocations calling for intellectual ability and large attainments belong to men, while woman should keep wholly and forever to her own province in the nursery and kitchen; for much mental effort they pronounce her totally unfit; in *their* view she is alike unfitted for head work or hand work; she may nibble along the surface, may pluck from the common branches, and gather the gleanings, but on no account can she be permitted to venture into the higher fields of knowledge.

Is the fact that woman can never equal man in some of the occupations a good reason for her not attempting them at all? In all the professions that some ladies would enter they would still find some men on the ladder below them. It is due to woman that she should have the same chance as men, the chance to test her powers, and to settle for herself and for the world the mooted question of what she *is* able and what she is not able to accomplish. Had it seemed best to the Creator and the awarder of our especial qualities that man should be the *sole* educator of the race, He would *not* have given to the inadequate and feeble hand of woman the care and management of the most impressive years of life—a control which is exercised even to maturity. Perhaps, as some *have* ventured to say, we *have* drifted into the wrong channel, and our sphere *is* in the various fields of labor which keep our fathers employed, to the exclusion of parental authority from early morning till late at night. In France woman has shown how readily she can adapt herself to business affairs, as all travellers know. As the mothers there fill their proper sphere (if they have not usurped the province of their husbands) and men are employed in the schools, French children have afforded a rare opportunity of testing the merits of the system advocated by those who believe the education of children should be placed wholly in the hands of the male sex.

In conclusion, it is due that I should say this paper has been hastily and reluctantly prepared in compliance with a request of our superintendent. I beg pardon for the length of the article, and for anything in it that may seem unkind, or that has seemed like assailing the posi-

tion of gentlemen in our schools. It is my belief that in the corps of instruction of every institution there should be men and women who can hear and speak, and mutes of both sexes; they are all necessary to the greatest welfare of the institution. Each can do an important work in his sphere. The mute teachers serve as an example to the pupils, spurring them on to greater diligence and higher attainments. Men, because of their inventive faculties, (possibly superior to those of women,) and by reason of the constant need of gentlemen to fill the positions of superintendents becoming vacant, are essential to the permanence and efficiency of the profession. While women, for the discharge of responsible trusts, for their fidelity, for their superior aptness to teach, for their pure moral character, for their refining influence upon youthful character, for their earnest sympathy for childhood, for exemplars in conversation and deportment, are fitted to be eminently useful and successful instructors, and to promote the interests of the institution, the above respects make them, in their sphere, equally as successful as either of the other classes. In the arguments which I have used it has not been my intention nor desire to bring man down to *woman's level*, nor to prove that he is no longer useful in an institution, or that women should be employed to his exclusion, but to prove that the objections by which we have been assailed are no more true of us than of them. In doing this I have endeavored to adhere to facts. I do not claim that *we* have a better right in an institution than *men*, or that we can accomplish *more* than they, but that our success should be our justification.

The 12th and last paper was then read by Professor S. Porter, of the National Deaf-Mute College; subject—

#### THE INSTRUCTION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB IN GRAMMAR.

The study of grammar is usually regarded as an essential part of a common English education. If it be such in reality, it ought clearly to have a place in the full course in our primary institutions for the deaf and dumb. This study does in no way become of less value through the want of hearing and speech; on the contrary, its importance is enhanced for those who labor under this deprivation. The end and use of grammar, at least as a branch of common education, have reference chiefly to the better understanding and the more complete mastery of language to be gained thereby; and, in the education of the deaf-mute the great problem is how best and most fully to impart to him the knowledge of language. It being thus taken for granted that grammar shall be taught, the questions arise: *When, how, and how far?* That is, at what period in the course, by what methods and means, and to what extent, shall grammar be taught to the deaf-mute? Each of these questions involves considerations which trench upon the domain of the others, but still we had best take them up separately and treat of them one by one.

It is further to be observed that the plan I shall lay down is not one to be followed as an absolute rule, and will indeed, of necessity, be propounded in terms somewhat indefinite. Like every other general plan of instruction, it must needs be subject to modifications in practice, especially in accommodation to the varying ages and capacities of pupils.

I. First, as to *the time when* grammar should be taught, the plan I would advocate may be stated as follows:

Instruction in grammar should be commenced at a very early period in the course, and the subject should be unfolded by degrees as the

pupil advances in the acquisition of language. The reasons for proceeding in this manner are:

1. The elementary principles of grammar are easy of apprehension. There is no difficulty, for instance, in making the pupil understand at a very early stage the distinctions of noun and verb and adjective, the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verb, and between the subject and the object of a transitive verb. As fast as he gets the practical mastery of the forms of expression which involve these grammatical categories, just so fast can he, without difficulty, be made to understand the grammatical distinctions and relations. As he proceeds to the use of prepositions, adverbs, conjunctions, and of pronouns of the several sorts, each step in grammatical acquisition, taken in the proper order and with a sufficient knowledge of what precedes, will be taken without difficulty. And so it will be if, throughout the course, instruction in grammar be carried on hand in hand with the other instruction in language. The variations of gender, number, person, case, tense, mood, and voice, present no difficulties to hinder a clear understanding of their nature and relations, and of the rules concerning them, when once the meaning of the sentences in which they occur is apprehended and it is seen how the sense is affected by the change of a word from one form to another, or the transfer from one grammatical place in the sentence to another. The fundamental principles of the science are in themselves easy of apprehension, and their application is easy so far as we have to do with regular constructions in simple and plain accordance with these principles.

Elliptical and idiomatic forms, and expressions involving nice and difficult points for grammatical analysis, are not indeed to be wholly excluded from the lessons; for we wish the pupil to learn the language as employed in common usage. But, without undertaking here to prescribe the ways and methods of dealing with such cases, it will suffice to observe that there will remain examples enough of constructions that are perfectly regular, to serve the purpose of illustrating and familiarizing to the mind of the pupil the leading principles of grammar.

2. While grammatical principles are severally easy to be apprehended, they cannot at once be made familiar to the mind. The repeated application of a principle in numerous individual instances is necessary to bring it under complete mastery. Time is requisite thus to incorporate it as a part of the mental furniture. Time and practice are required upon each point before taking the next step in advance. By proceeding in the way thus indicated, the whole ground may be made to lie plain and clear before the mind, when otherwise all would be involved in confusion and perplexity.

The acquirement of language by the deaf-mute is of necessity a gradual process. Language is presented to him at first in its simplest and most easily apprehensible forms, and from these, when taught as he should be, he ascends step by step, encountering one by one the points to be acquired, and taking them in such order as will best conduce to their ready and thorough acquisition. Each new form of words which he thus acquires will, setting aside now the exceptional idioms, involve a new grammatical principle, or a new modification of one already presented. While he is learning the meaning of words and combinations, and gaining the ability to employ them, we have, supposing the attention to be turned in that direction, *the time* which is requisite to make him familiar with the points of grammar involved. Thus, if we can say no more than that such attention to the grammar will bring no interference or obstruction in regard to the acquirement of the language, the

gain to be realized is immense; we at least kill two birds with one stone, and save all the time that a separate study of grammar at a later period would require.

3. The order in which grammatical principles will in this way come up to be taught is the right order. We shall understand this the better the more deeply we explore the foundations upon which language rests as a grammatical structure, and the more intimate knowledge we have of the manner in which the superstructure is built up upon these foundations.

Language, we know, is a growth, a thing of gradual development. And the science of language can neither be taught nor understood without a more or less distinct reference to this fact. Grammar has its basis in the nature of things and the modes of thought. As things in their concrete and sensible forms are the first to impress themselves on the mind, and to demand expression in language; as, from the nature of the case, language could in its origin have given expression to thought only by taking the objects of thought under such forms, it is here we are to look for the foundations of grammar. For example, the substantive was at first the name of a concrete substantial thing, of an object presenting itself to the senses as a thing having a separate and permanent existence in space. The verb, again, was a word denoting an action or event, a something taking place in time, some action or change of which a substantial thing was the subject. The adjective was a word for a quality or attribute, permanent rather than transient, by which some substantial things are distinguished from others. The pronoun was a substitute for a gesture pointing out a thing as here or there. The prepositions were added to denote local relations of things to each other as at rest, and relations of direction as in motion.

There is nothing here in conflict with the commonly received theory that both verbs and nouns originated in verbal roots, or rather in roots which were neither noun nor verb, but were directly expressive of actions or phenomena. What I mean is, that whenever the distinction between noun and verb came into existence it had the foundation I have indicated. A noun substantive was a name for a being or thing, and verbs were words appropriated to actions and events; and from these diverse uses came all the characteristics which we know as appertaining respectively to the noun and to the verb as distinct parts of speech, and this by a process not difficult to trace.

The leading use of language being to affirm something, and actions and events being the first things to be affirmed, the *affirmative function* naturally becomes a leading characteristic of the verb: the expression of a mode of thought is thus superadded to the mere indication of the action or event as an object of thought. And as the action or event sometimes demands expression as a thing supposed, or contingent, or possible, or desired, and the like, and as the specification of time is ordinarily important in reference to actions and events, hence arise the variations of mood and tense as peculiarities of the verb. The verb having thus become distinguished as the affirming word, and as a word subject to certain modifications, does not continue to be confined to actions and events; but anything whatever that can be affirmed of a subject, be it a relation or a condition, or be it the very general attribute of existence, or merely the relation of being posited as the subject of a predicated attribute, may be expressed by a verb. Again, as it would be concrete, substantial things that in the first instance would be designated as the subjects of which actions and events were to be affirmed, or as objects affected thereby or concerned therein, this *designative function* would become

the leading characteristic of the substantive whenever distinguished from the verb as a part of speech, and this whether the distinction be indicated by form and inflection, or simply by position in the sentence. This done, the way is prepared for expressing in the form of a substantive any object of thought, however different it may be from an independent permanently existing substance, and however far removed from the concrete and the sensible, whenever it becomes requisite or convenient to designate the same as a subject of predication or as an object of relation.

What I am here aiming at is to set forth clearly the principle which is the only key to a correct understanding of grammar; the only clue, indeed, to guide in its construction as a science; a principle to which reference should be had in every definition, rule, and exposition. We have, to begin with, objects of thought presenting themselves for expression in forms of the more obvious and obtrusive sort, and under the modes of thought which they naturally and respectively tend to assume; and through them we have certain artificial forms of language fixed and determined. In them we have the types from which the several grammatical categories and their modifications have been taken, as a mould is made from a pattern; but the moulds thus produced are capable of receiving, and do actually receive and accommodate to themselves, materials of altogether another sort from the patterns upon which they were shaped.

Now, the order of development in language itself, which thus controlled the upbuilding of its grammatical structure, corresponds so closely to the order which will best be followed in imparting to the deaf-mute a knowledge of language as to furnish a weighty reason in favor of teaching him grammar at the same time and by parallel steps. For he may thus not only be more readily and easily inducted into a knowledge of its principles, but will obtain a more thorough and satisfactory understanding of them than would in any other way be possible.

In most, if not in all of our institutions, grammar is taught more or less thoroughly on the general plan which I am advocating. The disadvantage and the loss, were instruction in this branch wholly deferred to a late period in the course, can be best appreciated by those whose experience as instructors has acquainted them with the difficulties which the study presents to such semi-mutes as come to the institution already able to read and write, but wholly untaught in grammar. We who have been familiar with grammatical principles as far back as our memories run, cannot well realize the very considerable difficulties the study must involve for one to whom all ideas on the subject are new and strange. To master the subject is, under the most favorable circumstances, a work of time, and when the right order, and with the requisite time upon each step, cannot be secured, the task is rendered far more formidable. Take, for example, the word *delight* in such a sentence as "A dutiful son is the delight of his parents." Of what part of speech is *delight*? If the learner finds a verb defined (supposing him to be using a text-book) as "a word used to express the action or state of a subject," may he not say that "delight" expresses the "state of a subject?" Or, if the verb be defined as an affirming word, "is the delight" affirms as truly as does "is delighted," which we call a verb. But suppose "delight" to be recognized as a noun, in what case is it? "Is the delight" may be regarded as the equivalent in sense of *gives delight*. And why not say that "is" here means *gives*, as well as to say that "delight" here means *cause of delight*? In fact, not only is it a common thing for beginners to mistake sometimes a predicate nominative for an objective case, but I have known in more than one instance a well-instructed and generally accu-

rate, but late-taught student, to be caught tripping in the same fashion. In saying "honesty is the best policy," or "knowledge is power," it is not indeed quite easy to see policy to be the same thing as honesty, or knowledge the same as power; for we can say as well, honesty is dictated by sound policy, or, knowledge confers power, in which case the two words would not "refer" or be applied to the same thing.

4. But we do not stop here. The teaching of grammar in the way here recommended and under the methods to be presently explained will not only be no hinderance, and hence an obvious saving of time, but will be a positive assistance in the imparting of language as a practical attainment. The convenience of a reference to grammatical principles in pointing out and correcting errors in composition, and then in the explanation of passages which the pupil does not readily comprehend—the advantage of this means of indicating the relations of the words—will be recognized at once by every teacher, upon recurring to his own experience. Upon this point experience is the only decisive test, and the only argument I shall adduce will be an appeal to experience. As the help of grammar is rarely, if ever, wholly dispensed with in any of our institutions, we have few opportunities of applying this test, except in the comparison of more and less. But I recollect an instance under my own observation, to which, as it made a strong impression upon my mind in relation to the matter in question, I will take the liberty of referring. It was that of a lad of far more than ordinary intelligence and docility, who had been under private instruction, conducted in an unsystematic manner, for some time before he became connected with any of our public institutions. The habits thus formed seemed to cling to him as he proceeded, so that when he had got on to a somewhat advanced stage in the institution he seemed to have little or no idea that the combination of words in sentences was to be regulated by any other law than the caprice of the person employing them. It would indeed be an exaggeration to say that his mind was absolutely in that state which we sometimes find in deaf-mutes, in which words enough are known, but with no idea of a sentence as anything but an agglomeration of signs that have no other function than to express what they may separately suggest. But he was so near to this that he had no clear conviction opposed to such an idea, and beyond a certain limited range proceeded practically with no other guide. When, at length, he came to the study of grammar with one of the common English Grammars as a text-book, light broke upon him, and order began to spring up out of the chaos. The great point gained seemed to be that he thus got a distinct impression of the fact that words are everywhere and always under the restriction of certain laws of combination. He was thus set as it were upon the right track: a new direction was given to his efforts, which were speedily and ever after fruitful of better results. I could not doubt that he had lost much for the want of that earlier indoctrination which he would have obtained had he been taught at first in the manner usually followed in our public institutions.

5. Finally, in reference to the development and training of the intellect, there must be an advantage in the course here recommended, provided it is on other grounds admissible. Instruction so conducted will cultivate habits of accurate discrimination and strengthen the power of apprehending and applying general principles; and this in a gradual manner and by easy steps, so as not to bring too great a strain upon minds of ordinary capacity, even though immature in age and wholly undisciplined at the outset. This training and development of the faculties is not only a good in itself, but will indirectly, as well as in the more direct and obvious way already referred to, contribute to ready and thorough proficiency in the acquisition of language.



II. Next, as to the methods by which the instruction in grammar is to be conducted, it should be here remarked that what I am about to say is presupposed in what I have laid down under the previous head, and that the validity of the arguments I have just adduced must depend in great part upon what I am here about to recommend. One method may admit of being worked so that what I have said shall prove true, while of another the operation would of necessity be quite the reverse.

1. One feature of the method which I think preferable is that, while the grammar is to be carried on *pari passu* with the lessons in language, still the grammar should be kept in the background. It should follow modestly behind as a subordinate instead of taking the lead as the main thing.

Language should be taught, even from the outset, as meaning something, as used for some definite purpose, which should in all cases be clearly apprehended by the learner: he should be made to understand it as expressing some thought, and not merely as suggesting objects to the mind, and still less as fulfilling its purpose when put together in accordance with certain formulas and rules or after certain models. It seems to me important that the pupil should have this idea and the resulting habits impressed upon him at the very commencement, and should carry it on with him at every step; and that the lessons prepared for him and the whole method of instruction should be such as will tend to this result.

A reference to grammar should indeed underlie the course of lessons in such a way as to secure a proper gradation in the introduction of new classes of words and new modes of construction; but still the lessons in language may be, and, as I think, should be, of such a sort that the whole method of instruction may be properly characterized as a natural in distinction from a grammatical method.

In teaching the lessons, the first thing is for the pupil to commit them to memory, and to be made to understand the meaning of each complete expression of thought as a whole, and of the several words that enter into it; the meaning being explained, not only by signs, but with the aid of supplemental exercises illustrative of the words.

After a sufficient amount of material has in this way been provided, then may come in the grammatical analysis. As the pupil advances, I would not say that, when a new form of language is introduced, attention should not be directed at all to the fact that it involves a new grammatical point, but that, in general and in the main, the instruction in grammar should be conducted by way of *résumé*, after a supply of material has been furnished and well mastered so far as concerns a practical understanding of the language.

2. It follows from this, *a fortiori*, that the instruction in grammar should be no way anticipative of the progress actually made in language. The grammatical knowledge will thus have to come piecemeal, and be fragmentary under the scientific point of view almost to the last, only by degrees approximating a complete and rounded form, as step by step the attainments in language become more and more complete. As fast as materials are gained, they may be set in their proper place in the system: as fast, for instance, as pronouns are taught, they may be taken out and set down together as belonging to a distinct class of words, and as sub-divided into different sorts; and each one with its variations according to declension, as fast as these variations occur in the language lessons; and so with the verb, the variations of tense and mode and voice may be set down and arranged as fast as they come up in actual use in the lessons, and thus the paradigm of conjugation be gradually built up.

3. Another point closely connected with the preceding, is that the drill of parsing, or other formal exercises pertaining to grammar, which consume time and divert attention from the acquirement of language itself, should not be prematurely introduced. Pupils are sometimes to be met with who are expert in parsing and skilful to point out with a just discrimination the syntactical relations in sentences the meaning of which they apprehend, who, when they attempt to write, will rarely compose a sentence which could be parsed by the best grammarian in the world. And this so happens because time which should have been spent in giving them an actual mastery of language has been employed upon the technics of grammar. Such knowledge is not indeed lost: it bears fruit in time, if time is left afterwards to make up the deficiency. Still, there is thus on the whole a sad waste of time, because things are taken out of their proper order. In the erection of a building, the scaffolding should ordinarily not go up quite as fast as the building itself, and by no means any faster, and this for more reasons than one. For, in the first place, the scaffolding should depend mainly on the building for its own support; and then, it would be a great waste of labor and expense, and besides quite needlessly delay the progress of the building, to carry up the scaffolding first and the building afterwards.

4. Grammatical terms—that is, the names for the parts of speech and their subdivisions, properties, and modifications—should not be taught in the earlier stages of instruction; as we have convenient substitutes, which will presently be mentioned. As the pupil advances, it may be well to make him acquainted with them from time to time one after another, as the teacher may find convenient and expedient.

5. Definitions, explanations, and rules, embodied in words, should be wholly dispensed with till a late period in the course, and for all in the primary institutions except the most advanced classes.

The definitions are unnecessary to make the terms understood, or the notions which the terms represent. They are, many of them, usually if not necessarily, inadequate at the best, serving but to confound and mislead so far as they bring any comprehension. To superadd the difficulties of definitions to the difficulties of the subject, in the case of learners, deaf-mutes or others, who by mental development and knowledge of language are in no degree prepared to apprehend them, is preposterous in the extreme. Correct grammatical notions are undoubtedly gained by learners in general not so much through the definitions as in spite of them. The rules of syntax are of some practical use; but the pupils of our primary institutions should not be burdened with these till they reach the most advanced classes, when it will be proper to put into their hands some compendious text-book upon grammar.

6. Etymology will not go before syntax, but the two will be taught in conjunction. The plan as already expounded necessarily involves this feature; and this is, indeed, the right way for introducing learners, of whatever class, to their first knowledge of grammar. It is so for the reason that etymology has mostly no meaning apart from syntax, etymological distinctions having their foundation almost wholly in syntactical relations.

7. As substitutes for grammatical terms and for parsing in the usual form, we may employ—

(1.) *Manual or gestural signs* for the parts of speech and their properties and modifications. Such signs are in common use in our American institutions, and I need not here describe them. All the explanations in regard to the relations of words in sentences for which there will be occasion can be given easily and perfectly by the language of signs.

(2.) We have a special device in a set of marks, called *grammatical symbols*, of which more or less use is made in most if not all of our institutions. It so happens that two different sets of such symbols have been introduced. One of them was devised in the early days of the Hartford Asylum by instructors in that institution. Upon this some improvements were engrafted by my predecessor, Professor Storrs, now of Hartford, which give it a more systematic completeness; and in this shape it is now employed here and also at Hartford.

The other set referred to was brought out originally by F. A. P. Barnard, now president of Columbia College, New York, in his *Analytic Grammar, with symbolic illustrations*, published in New York in 1836, and prepared while the author was an instructor in the New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb; and is now in use at that institution, and some others as well. A full description of it by I. L. Peet, the present principal of that institution, may be found in his paper on *Grammatical Symbols*, published among the Proceedings of the Third Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf and Dumb, which was held at Columbus, Ohio, in 1853.

These symbols may be employed in various ways, which need not here be all particularly pointed out. When placed over the words in a sentence, they not only represent their grammatical class and modifications, but by the aid of connecting lines they may indicate the syntactical relations of the words. They may also serve a useful purpose as formulas for explanatory reference or for exercises in composition.

(3.) Grammatical diagrams. The design of this method of representation is to picture to the eye the syntactical relations in sentences, and more especially those relations which are brought to view in what, in our modern grammars, goes under the name of sentence-analysis.

The method of diagrams as in use in this institution is the invention of Professor Storrs, originated by him some years ago. It differs in important features from that which we find in the *English Grammar* by S. W. Clark, (New York, 1857,) and in the *Grammatical Diagrams defended and improved*, by Fred. S. Jewel, (New York, 1867,) and is on several accounts decidedly preferable to that. As given below, it appears with some slight modifications, which in my use of it I have taken the liberty to introduce.

It should be observed that to the diagram we usually add the symbols, placing them over their respective words and outside of the line of the diagram.

The improved set of the Hartford symbols are as follows :

Noun.....	$\perp$	Verb transitive.....	$\checkmark$
Pronoun .....	$\perp$	Verb intransitive.....	$\checkmark$
Adjective .....	$\top$	Verb passive.....	$\checkmark$
Adverb.....	$\overline{\top}$	Verb progressive .....	$\checkmark$
Verb .....	$\checkmark$	Indicative mood.....	$\checkmark$
Preposition .....	$\underline{\epsilon}$	Subjunctive mood .....	$\checkmark$
Conjunction.....	$\times$	Potential mood.....	$\checkmark$
Interjection.....	!	Imperative mood.....	$\checkmark$
		Infinitive .....	$\underline{\checkmark}$
Proper noun .....	$\perp$	Participle.....	$\checkmark$
Common noun.....	$\perp$	Participle as noun .....	$\checkmark$
Relative pronoun .....	$\perp$	Present tense .....	$\checkmark$
Noun (and pronoun in like manner,) of the Nominative case .....	$\perp$	Past tense .....	$\checkmark$
Possessive case.....	$\perp$	Future tense.....	$\checkmark$
Objective case.....	$\checkmark$	Present perfect tense.....	$\checkmark$
Independent case.....	$\perp$	Past perfect tense .....	$\checkmark$
Masculine gender .....	$\perp$	Future perfect tense.....	$\checkmark$
Feminine gender .....	$\perp$	Verb singular.....	$\checkmark$
Common gender.....	$\perp$	Verb plural .....	$\checkmark$
Neuter gender.....	$\phi$	Verb first person .....	$\checkmark$
First person.....	$\perp$	Verb second person.....	$\checkmark$
Second person.....	$\perp$	Verb third person .....	$\checkmark$
Third person.....	$\perp$	Adjective (and adverb in like manner) of the Comparative degree.....	$\top$
Singular number.....	$\perp$	Superlative degree.....	$\top$
Plural number.....	$\perp$		

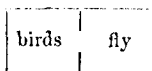
Example of symbols applied :—

$\overset{3}{\perp}$   
John

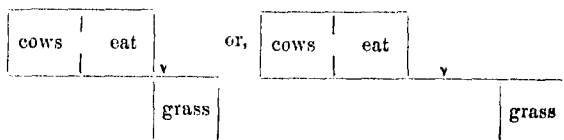
$\overset{3}{\checkmark}$   
walks.

*Examples of grammatical diagrams.*

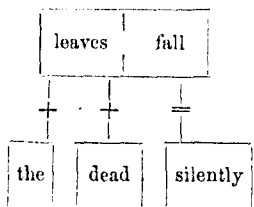
(1.)



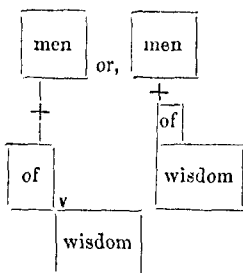
(2.)



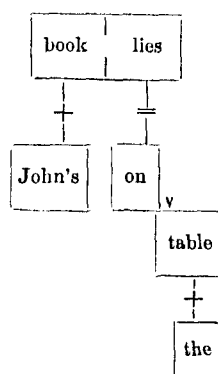
(3.)



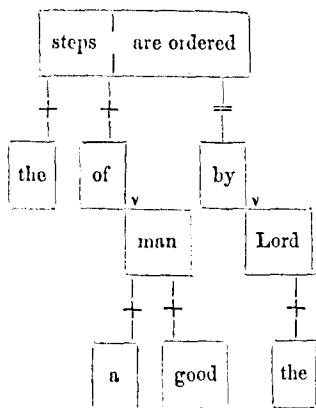
(4.)



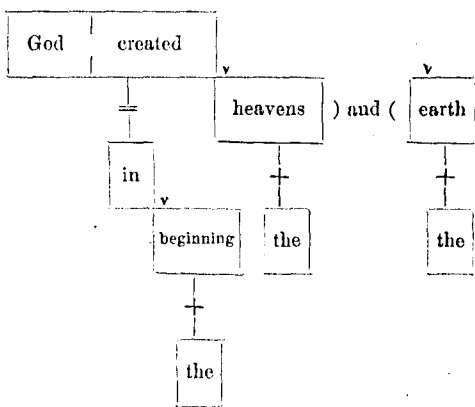
(5.)



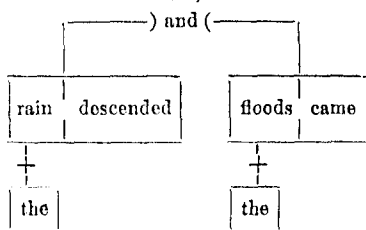
(6.)



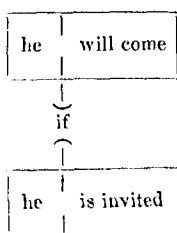
(7.)



(8.)



(9.)



(10.)

To give  
+  
money  
+  
alone

will do  
+  
good  
+  
little

(11.)

we expect  
+  
that  
+  
he will come

(12.)

he is  
+  
happy

(13.)

it made  
+  
happy  
+  
him

(14.)

he was made  
+  
happy  
+  
by

(15.)

he chasteneth  
+  
him  
+  
Lord loveth  
+  
it  
+  
whom  
+  
the

(16.)

Hampden) ----- (Milton) ----- (Cromwell may rest  
+ + + + +  
Some who withstood tyrant Some guilty Some here  
+ + + + +  
village with + + + mute of blood  
+ + + + +  
breast of fields inglorious  
+ + + + +  
dauntless the little his  
+ + + + +  
country  
+  
his

Diagram No. 1 shows the manner of representing the subject nominative with its verb. In No. 2 we have the transitive verb with its objective complement. The mode of attaching other modifiers by a vertical line is shown in No. 3; the single and the double cross-lines distinguishing them respectively as adjective and adverbial. In several others we have modifying phrases and clauses distinguished in a similar manner. Two slightly different ways of connecting the preposition with its object are shown in No. 4. In No. 7 we have words connected by a conjunction. In No. 8 we have co-ordinate clauses connected; and a principal and a subordinate clause in No. 9. In No. 10 we have for the subject nominative an infinitive with objective complement; and in No. 11 is shown a convenient mode of representing substantive clauses. Predicate adjectives and predicate nominatives I have preferred to attach to the verb in the manner of adjective modifiers, as in No. 12. An adjective in the factitive relation, as also predicate accusatives, I attach in the like manner to the factitive verb, as in No. 13. Thus, when the verb is made passive, the adjective or the noun appears still attached to the verb in the same way as when it is active, as is shown in No. 14. Words which have to be supplied as understood may be enclosed within dotted lines, as in No. 15.

The advantage of the method of diagrams is that it represents each kind of relation uniformly in the same manner, however various may be the collocation of the words in the sentence, and pictures the whole to the eye in a distinct and orderly shape. This way of reducing the sentence to a form which thus exhibits the relations of the parts, under whatever variable and complicated arrangements they are found combined, tends to enlighten the mind of the learner upon the matter of sentence construction. Practice in the use of the diagrams helps to give a ready command of the various modes of construction which the language will admit. It is obvious that we have in this instrument a convenient and a perfect test of a pupil's comprehension of a sentence so far as the construction is concerned; and it will be found a most improving exercise in composition, if the pupil be set to reconstruct sentences which have been analyzed and represented by diagrams.

In the diagrams we bring in superficial extension to take the place of the simply linear extension to which we are limited in the ordinary use of words. Words standing in line or uttered in succession present themselves each one as connected immediately only with one preceding and one following. By the diagrams each may stand connected immediately with any number of others, and by one or another kind of connection. Hence the advantage of this mode of representation. There is only one thing which it need fail to represent fully and perfectly—that is, the emphasis that depends upon the order of words as uttered in succession; and even this might be compassed by simple expedients were it desirable to do so.

III. The remaining question, under the division of my subject, viz., to what extent should grammar be taught to the deaf and dumb, hardly needs a separate consideration after what has been said already. For, it follows that the study should be pursued just so far, and no farther, as may be warranted by the progress made in language, and be directly auxiliary to further progress in the same. This is, at least, all that the primary institute can be expected to accomplish.

As for the college, the grammatical instruction there given need not differ materially from what is eligible for any other college, provided the student comes with that adequate preparation which the high-class in the primary institution, where such a class is maintained, should aim to fur-

nish. To the student so prepared it belongs to the college to impart a broader and deeper knowledge of the subject than can be got from the drill of the primary school, or from the routine of what commonly goes under the name of English grammar. He should have opened to him that fuller light which comes from a comparison of the English with other tongues, and from some knowledge of the sources whence it has sprung and the stages of development through which it has passed. He should be led to a careful study of the manner in which the meanings of words are developed from the radical signification, and of the laws that determine the Protean transformations which the meaning of a word not unfrequently undergoes, as well as of the ways in which the external forms are built up. And he should have unfolded to him those principles, founded in the laws of thought and the nature of things, which underlie all language and all grammar. The instruction in grammar and the cognate branches of study, rightly conducted, may be expected not only to aid the student in gaining a fuller mastery of language as a vehicle of expression and an instrument of thought, and in becoming qualified for the thorough appreciation and discriminating criticism of works of literature, but, through the enlarged and comprehensive views to which it will make him accustomed, will it accomplish one of the most important ends of scholarly culture.

This paper was followed by remarks and illustrations of the method of teaching by means of symbols, by I. L. Peet and Professor Porter.

Mr. Gillett offered the following resolution:

*Resolved*, That in the opinion of this conference there should be held, from time to time, general conventions of all persons engaged in the education of the deaf and dumb, and that a committee of five be appointed to make arrangements for holding a convention either next year or the year after.

On motion of I. L. Peet, this was referred to a committee, and the president appointed I. L. Peet, C. Stone, and P. G. Gillett to act as said committee.

Mr. Stone offered the following, which was adopted:

*Resolved*, That in the judgment of this conference it is desirable to sustain a periodical which shall be devoted to the discussion of subjects relating to our profession, and which may also be a medium for communication between the deaf-mute institutions of our country.

On motion of Mr. Talbot the above resolution was referred to a committee, and Messrs C. Stone, E. M. Gallaudet, and T. McIntire were appointed.

On motion of E. M. Gallaudet conference adjourned to eight o'clock Saturday morning.

#### SATURDAY MORNING.

The conference met at 8 o'clock, Dr. H. P. Peet in the chair. Religious services were conducted by Revs. Talbot and Turner.

The minutes of the sessions of the previous day were read and approved.

Mr. E. M. Gallaudet stated that Miss D. L. Dix, being desirous to show her interest in the cause of the deaf and dumb, had placed in his hands a sum of money sufficient to afford \$10 for each institution for the purchase of some memento of her regard.

On motion of Rev. B. Talbot, the following vote of thanks was adopted:

*Resolved*, That the thanks of this conference be presented to Miss Dorothy L. Dix, in behalf of the several institutions represented, for her generous donation.



Mr. I. L. Peet, from committee on convention, reported a modified resolution, as follows:

*Resolved*, That in the opinion of this conference there should be held, from time to time, general conventions of all persons engaged in the education of the deaf and dumb, and that Mr. I. L. Peet, of New York, Dr. Joseph H. Johnson, of Alabama, Rev. Collins Stone, of Connecticut, Dr. H. W. Milligan, of Wisconsin, and W. O. Connor, of Georgia, be appointed a committee to make arrangements for such a convention either in the year 1869 or 1870, and to issue a call for the same, inviting all teachers of deaf-mutes and principals and trustees of institutions to assemble, without regard to the methods or system they may use in their labors. Adopted.

Mr. McIntire, from committee on periodical, reported the following resolutions:

*Resolved*, That in the opinion of this conference it is expedient to sustain a periodical which shall be devoted to the interests of deaf-mute instruction, and that to this end, the "American Annals of the Deaf and Dumb," ought to be revived and continued.

*Resolved*, That an executive committee of five persons be selected to serve until the meeting of the next convention, with power to appoint an editor, fix the time, number, and place of publication, and do all other things necessary for carrying out the foregoing resolution.

*Resolved*, That the members of this conference pledge their influence to sustain such a periodical, and to circulate it in the several States which we represent.

These resolutions were adopted, and the following gentlemen appointed an executive committee to carry them out: E. M. Gallaudet, C. Stone, I. L. Peet, W. J. Palmer, and Thomas McIntire.

On motion of Mr. Turner it was resolved—

That we express our thanks to President E. M. Gallaudet, and his associates in the National Deaf-Mute College and Columbia Institution, for calling this conference, and for the kind and generous hospitality extended to us while here.

President Gallaudet responded, expressing the gratification which he felt in the hearty and generous manner with which the invitation to come hither had been met, and for the harmonious and enthusiastic meeting; also, for the interest expressed in the peculiar work in which the officers of the National Deaf-Mute College are engaged. He referred to the relations of the college to the institutions, the necessity for the support of the institutions, the friendships that had been strengthened by this meeting, and closed by invoking the choicest blessings upon each and all members of the conference.

Dr. Milligan presented the following resolution, which was adopted:

*Resolved*, That the thanks of the conference are tendered to Dr. Nichols and his able assistants for the kind courtesy shown to us, and for the exhibition of dissolving views, which was not only entertaining but profitable, and which afforded a valuable suggestion that may be of practical utility in each of our institutions.

Mr. W. J. Palmer moved a resolution of thanks to Dr. H. P. Peet, as follows:

*Resolved*, That in closing this interesting conference we feel it eminently fit and proper to give an expression of the gratification it has afforded us to have with us our venerable president, H. P. Peet, LL. D., and that we tender to him our thanks for the impartial manner he has presided over our deliberations, and that we offer to him the hospitality of our several institutions, and hope that now that he has retired from the active duties of the profession he may visit us and see some of the results of his faithful labors in behalf of the deaf and dumb of our country.

Adopted.

An informal discussion of the various modes of conducting religious exercises in the institutions then followed, which was engaged in by Messrs. I. L. Peet, Milligan, Palmer, Turner, Gillett, and Bangs.

Dr. J. H. Johnson offered the following, which was adopted:

*Resolved*, That the thanks of this conference are due and are hereby tendered to the secretaries for the very able and satisfactory manner in which they have discharged the arduous duties of their position during the sessions just drawing to a close.

Mr. I. L. Peet read portions of an elementary chemistry, prepared by

his brother, and suggested that those engaged in the work of teaching the deaf and dumb should prepare text-books.

On motion of Mr. Gallaudet, the conference then adjourned *sine die*.

Dr. H. P. Peet, on rising to declare the vote, expressed great gratification in meeting those present. He had passed not a short time in the work in which all were engaged. Seventy-three winters had shed their snows on his head, and he was reminded by the infirmities of age that he might never meet his brethren again in the flesh. He had no regret that he had engaged in this work. He had labored with good intention, but doubtless with many mistakes. He rendered thanks for the consideration which had been shown to him, and then concluded with an impressive prayer.